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ABSTRACT

This book discusses various aspects of child care programs. Chapter titles include: Child Care Needs and Issues; Present Influences on Early Childhood Programs; Licensing and Standards; The Program; Stories and Music; Art and Science; The Physical Environment Staffing the Child Care Center; Working with Parents; Guidance of the Young Child; Health and Safety; Finances and Business Management; and Of Special Interest to Home Economics Teachers. Also included are a bibliography, a list of sources of information on the special child, and source lists for films, books, records, and equipment. (SB)

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PREFACE

Many authorities, concerned with the welfare of our nation, agree that children represent our most important resource and believe that we as a nation should spend adequate funds to advance the optimum development of each child. Most child development authorities agree on the importance of a good start in the early years. A warm, loving environment at the beginning and a genuine concern for the emerging personality contribute tremendously toward the development of the child's potential. But too often the potential is blighted or limited because we fail to provide the proper environment for our children. The price to society of such neglect can be an increase in delinquency and mental health problems.

This handbook focuses on the early years. Its aim is to help home economists—teachers, students, business women, homemakers—gain the information required to provide the kind of quality care children need whether in the home, in a child care center, or in a day care family home. Since there is already a large amount of resource material available, no attempt has been made to duplicate existing materials. Rather, the handbook clarifies and condenses information to present it in a single publication. Other sources are also cited for those who wish to supplement both the philosophy and the practical ideas offered in this handbook.

Ivalee McCord, chairman
Committee for Child Care Handbook
1975

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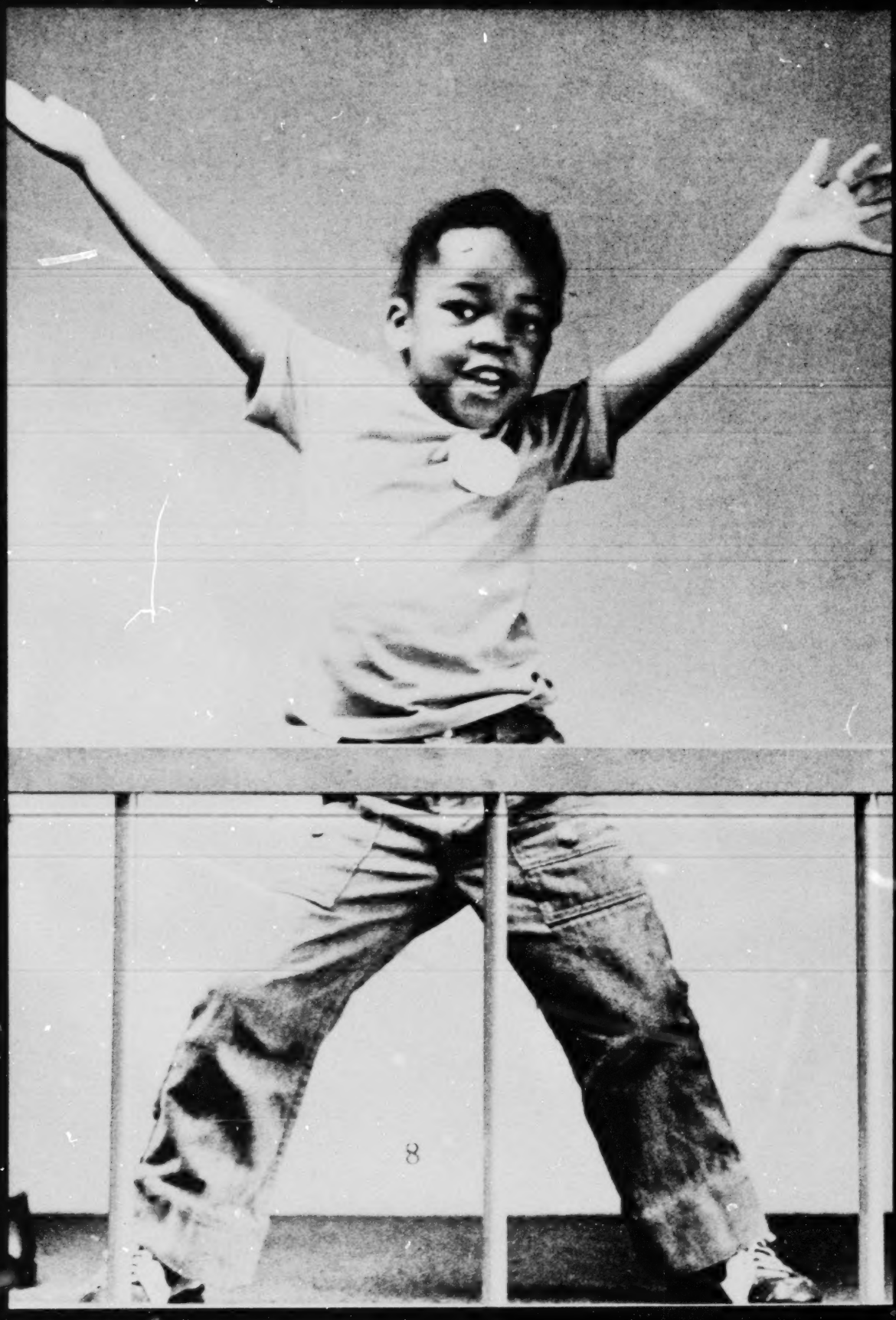

1

CHILD CARE: NEEDS AND ISSUES

In 1970, the White House Conference on Children voted as its primary concern full day care for children and asked for a national reordering of priorities toward that end. Many forces and changes in society have further stimulated a renewed interest in the care of young children. Among the factors have been an increase in the number of working mothers, political pressures to get families off the welfare rolls, pressures from women's rights groups, interest on the part of business and industry to employ women, and—perhaps most important of all—a new emphasis on the early years as vastly influential in the child's total development.

Working Mothers

During the last decade, the number of working mothers increased by 73 percent. Many of these women work out of necessity either to provide sole support for the family or to supplement the family income. Of the children whose parents are both employed, over 25 percent have fathers who earn no more than $2000 a year. Over half of the children in one-parent homes have mothers who earn even less than $2000. U.S. Department of Labor statistics show that six million children under the age of six must receive child care during the mothers' working hours. Of these, only 10 percent are cared for in licensed centers or homes. Many of these facilities offer little more than custodial care, providing for the physical needs only. Children who remain at home are often left alone for hours or in the custody of slightly older siblings or elderly adults. The mother from the marginal or lower middle-income group is probably the hardest hit of all. She earns too much to receive a subsidy but not enough to pay for good care even when it is available.

Welfare Rolls and the Poverty Cycle

Much political concern continues to focus on burgeoning welfare rolls and rising costs. One solution has been the Work Incentive program also known as WIN that provides job training for welfare mothers and mandates child care while the mother is in training and later when she seeks employment.

Some authorities question whether it is cheaper to provide child care or to pay the mother to stay home with her children. They reason that an unskilled woman who earns less than the cost of child care outside the home might better be paid to stay home with her child. A long-range view, however, suggests that the ultimate benefits to society may be greater when the mother is helped to prepare for employment, to enjoy a heightened sense of dignity and worth, and to instill a like sense of self-worth in her children. It is reasonable to expect that the child who receives quality care through trained personnel will have opportunity for greater success in life than would otherwise be the case. In short, this process could provide one way to "break the cycle of poverty."

Women's Rights and Child Care

In advocating programs to care for the young, groups concerned with the status of women foresee equal opportunity for education and employment as possible only when quality child care is readily available to all women whatever their economic status. Some of these groups urge the government to take responsibility for child care and to establish round-the-clock centers, open 24 hours a day, for parents who work on odd schedules. Others of these groups call for more equal division of responsibility between parents so that both have the choice of holding a job or caring for the children. Centers should be so oriented that fathers as well as mothers may visit or work in the center and share in the child-rearing role.

Industry Involvement

Although industry relies heavily on women workers, relatively few businesses have shown interest in providing services for the children of employees. However, some companies and hospitals now operate child care centers as a means of attracting personnel. Some companies help to subsidize community-operated centers that serve their employees. An amendment to the Labor-Management Relations Act of 1969 permits employer contributions to trust funds to establish child care centers for preschool and school-age dependents of employees.

Industry has also been involved in promoting franchise or proprietary child care centers. Many authorities in the field, however, frown upon the operation of centers for profit, believing that either the cost of such centers becomes prohibitively high for many mothers or else the quality of the services suffers. The number of franchise centers has decreased for another reason: they have proved less profitable than anticipated.

Early Learning Environment

During the 1960's, child development research underscored the importance of a child's early years. One researcher proposes that by age 4, children have attained half of what they will know by age 17 (Bloom, 1964). Consequently, their basic and most important learning years are those before children reach school age.

One result of the child development research was the initiation of the Head Start program (Child Development Centers)—a compensatory program intended to help children from low-income families achieve school readiness comparable to that of children from middle-class homes. In reality, the program is more "catch up" than "head start."

Few persons would insist that children are equally prepared when they enter school. They are not. In middle-class homes, children are talked to, read to, taken on trips, and exposed to many stimulating experiences in their environment. Their intellectual curiosity, as a rule, is encouraged. Children from middle-class homes view adults as sources of information and ideas. They look to the adults for approval and reward.

The situation may be very different in low-income homes. Family size, difficulties in providing for the basic necessities, the low level of education of many parents, the absence of a father in some instances—all tend to inhibit opportunities to create the kind of environment conducive to optimum intellectual development. Whereas middle-class parents usually provide a great deal of language stimulation, parents in lower-class homes may ignore questions or respond in monosyllables or gestures.

The most recent research implies that the critical learning years of a child's life occur even earlier than those proposed by Benjamin Bloom. Jerome Kagan and Burton White at Harvard University believe that the child's cognitive style—the way a child learns—develops during his first 10 to 18 months (White, 1973).

Whatever the reasons for insistence on child care, certain basics must be recognized whether the care occurs within the home, in a center, or a family-care home, for a half day, a full day, during nighttime, or over the weekend. Provision for physical and health care is important but is not enough. Equally essential are programs to satisfy social, emotional, and intellectual needs in accordance with the developmental level and capacities of the child. These cannot be met if the child spends much of the day in front of the TV set. Top quality child care creates an environment rich in things to do that offer many experiences—with nature, science, music, art, literature, and community life. Quality care requires close cooperation between the care-giver and the parents to ensure that the best interests of child and family are served.

2

PRESENT INFLUENCES ON EARLY CHILDHOOD PROGRAMS

One of the issues in early childhood programs is the type of program to be offered. Traditionally, persons involved in university laboratory nursery schools have stressed the importance of play in the child's development, believing that through play a child learns about himself and others.

Recent research on the importance of the early years for cognitive development has led to the introduction of a variety of early childhood programs. Some are based on older or revised philosophies; some are of more recent origin.

Montessori Method

Maria Montessori (1870-1952) was the first woman to receive a medical degree in Rome, Italy. She became interested in children living in the slums of Rome. Many of the youngsters were considered mentally retarded. She found a warehouse to accommodate a large number of them, devised child-sized furnishings, developed teaching materials, and began to instruct her classes. Her success was phenomenal. India and many European countries copied her methods. In 1912, she visited the United States, but not until the 1960's did the Montessori method engage the interest of American educators. During the following decade, the movement grew markedly, and although it was originally intended for disadvantaged children, the Montessori method has proved most popular with upper middle-class parents able to afford private schools.

The Montessori method depends upon a prepared environment of didactic or learning materials, developed particularly to encourage sensory discriminations. Emphasis is on order and organization. The child learns to care for himself and for property through practical tasks such as sweeping floors, washing clothes, scrubbing table tops, pouring liquids, polishing shoes, cutting bread, and the like. The program also introduces exercises to promote writing and reading skills.

The teacher acts as facilitator or resource person in the learning environment. Called a "directoress," she demonstrates the use of materials, observes each child, and determines when he is ready to advance to more complicated activities. Temperamentally, linguistically, and organizationally, she must be a good model for the children, but her personal interaction with them is rather limited.

Essentials of a Montessori program are: heterogeneous grouping—usually of about 30 children age 3 to 6 years; self-selection and self-pacing in the use of materials; self-correcting sensory materials; and repetitive practice. Social games and dramatic play are not a part of the Montessori method, nor are most large muscle activities. Only those thought to foster the child's developing sense of equilibrium and those promoting the practical life skills are stressed.

Piagetian Theory

Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist, is another whose work has advanced the early childhood movement in America. Piaget is perhaps the most ingenious observer and certainly the most prolific

writer on children's early development. At first, his writings received slow acceptance, partly because translation posed difficulties and many of his terms were unfamiliar. However, since 1960 his work has influenced research and programs that deal with young children.

According to Piaget's theory, the human organism passes through a series of developmental stages in ability to use and process information transmitted to the brain. Progression through these stages depends on an interaction of neurological maturation and the child's physical and social experiences.

The initial stage, which is the sensory-motor stage, spans the first two years of life. For the child to progress optimally through this stage, he must be free to move about in his environment, to explore, to receive a great deal of sensory input: feeling, holding, tasting objects as well as seeing and hearing them. In this period, the child learns "object permanence," that is, that an object still exists even if it vanishes from sight when dropped or hidden. He is not likely, however, to show an active interest in vanished objects. At this stage, too, he begins to differentiate self from nonself (learning what is "me" and what is "not me").

The next period, the pre-operational, lasts from approximately age two to age seven. During this span, the child is limited in his thinking and reasoning ability due to his inability to focus on the relevant dimensions of a task. He is often confused by confounding environmental cues. He cannot, for example, understand that the number of objects in a group remains the same whether the objects are set close together or strung out; nor can he understand that three ounces of water stay the same in volume whether the water is poured into a tall, thin jar or a low, flat jar. He cannot in this pre-operational stage comprehend the fact that a smashed ball of clay contains the same amount of clay as an identical ball that has remained intact. At this time, too, he attributes life to any object that moves, for example, cars and clouds. Toward the end of this second developmental period, the child tends to classify objects according to a single characteristic—size, for example, or a single category, but not both.

Around six or seven years of age, he attains the third or concrete-operational stage of development. Now he begins to develop his higher cognitive abilities—especially those having to do with logic, ordering, or seriation, and what Piaget terms "reversibility" or conservation, the knowledge that certain properties of an object remain the same regardless of changes in form and spatial arrangement. This ability progresses through successively complex levels, first for mass, then weight, and finally for volume. Once the child achieves this level it is as if he "has always known" what he now knows. He must still have concrete objects before him as a point of reference.

At about 10 or 11 years of age, the child enters what Piaget calls the "formal operations" stage during which he becomes capable of higher levels of thought and reasoning. Piaget believes that a child at this stage can now think abstractly, formulate hypotheses, and envision alternatives. This advanced ability is perhaps a reason for his critical attitude and often his idealism.

Piagetian theory has been the basis for the cognitively oriented curriculum developed at Eastern Michigan University and the Weikart "follow-through" model for Head Start programs.

Academically Oriented Program

This highly structured program was first introduced by Carl Bereiter and Siegfried Engelmann of the University of Illinois. Later Engelmann and Wesley Becker revised the program; thus it may be labeled the Bereiter-Engelmann or the Engelmann-Becker approach.

The program focuses on specific educational objectives based on the premise that disadvantaged children are too far behind in their language and cognitive development to "waste time" on play or other "nonessentials." In practice the program alternates periods of 20 minutes each devoted to language, numbers, and reading readiness with music, snacktime, and a prepared "play" session. Children are divided into three groups according to their abilities, and three teachers, each with a different subject, rotate among the groups. The Bereiter-Engelmann program has been used as one of the models for Head Start and follow-through programs. Its curriculum is marketed under the name DISTAR.

Another program that should be mentioned here is that of Glen Nimnicht, head of the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, Berkeley, California. His program has three components: a model Head Start program for three- and four-year-old children; a follow-through program for children aged five to nine; and a parent-child toy library program for

parents of children three to nine years old. Nimnicht's program is especially designed for culturally and ethnically different children.

Behavior Analysis

In one way or another, most programs for young children attempt to modify the child's behavior. The behavior analysis or operant conditioning method offers a more systematic process for effecting behavioral change. This program, based on the work of B.F. Skinner, one of the leading proponents of the behaviorist approach, uses data obtained from observation of behavior.

If a child's behavior is to change, the type of action or type of behavior to be changed must be clearly identified, and a procedure for measuring the change must be established. The desired behavior, moreover, must be possible for the child to achieve. In the beginning, the specific behavior of a child is observed, defined, and recorded, and the frequency is counted. Also noted are the environmental conditions in which the behavior occurs. This initial step of collecting information (data) is referred to as a "baseline." Then the teacher institutes a plan to decrease the frequency of the particular behavior if it is an undesirable action or to increase the frequency of a desirable action. The child's behavior continues to be recorded as a means of judging whether or not the plan has proved effective in bringing about the desired change.

The consequences of the behavior that cause that particular type of behavior to be repeated are called *reinforcers*. *Positive reinforcers* maintain or increase the frequency of the behavior. *Negative reinforcers* cause the child to avoid certain actions. Although *punishment* tends to decrease a specific behavior, punishment may also have other effects that are not desirable. The following example illustrates the facets of behavior reinforcement (known as "shaping"):

A child uses offensive language at which the other children in the group laugh. A reprimand from the teacher each time the child utters a "naughty word" gives him the attention he wants and thereby positively reinforces his behavior. A spanking might cause the child to stop his use of undesirable language but might also cause him to fear the punisher, resent the humiliation, and take out his resentment in aggressive behavior toward other children. On the other hand, the adult can provide negative reinforcement by totally ignoring the child's bad language and thus deprive him of the reward he seeks, that is, the teacher's attention and the amusement or even secret admiration of the other children.

In trying to establish a new behavior, the adult must continuously reinforce the desirable behavior. Take, for example, the child who enjoys interaction with the teacher but avoids group activity. She can help him change his attitude by paying special attention to him when they are together in a group and by being very busy and unable to give him attention when he tries to seek her out alone. This type of positive reinforcement of the desired behavior and negative reinforcement of the undesired behavior has been known to have the anticipated results within a week so that by the end of the week the child looked more to the group and less to the teacher.

Once the behavior is established, intermittent reinforcement sustains the behavior. Individual attention from the teacher is one of the most powerful reinforcers. Because each child is a distinct individual, the procedure requires careful analysis to determine the factors that serve as reinforcers for the particular child.

Some authorities believe that behavior analysis is more appropriate for the mentally retarded or for older unmotivated or delinquent children than for normal children. The method may be used to persuade the unmotivated child to do something the teacher considers important. Words of praise such as "great" or "fantastic" often help a child to persist in a task.

The Open Classroom

This method resembles the British Infant School program that developed in England after World War II for children aged five to seven. The Open Classroom program focuses on self-selected activities as a way of learning, the belief being that through play children develop their concepts of causal relationships and learn to discriminate and make judgments. The classroom, therefore, is organized into various learning centers where children may choose their own activities. These sometimes offer more appropriate learning opportunities than any found in group learning situations which overlook the individuality of the child. The prevailing value in the Open Classroom stresses the child's need to solve present problems

or to satisfy present desires to learn and to build on past experiences. Preparation for future school years is not the main objective.

The concept of the Open Classroom also resembles the traditional nursery school in the United States. With current emphasis on early cognitive development, many nursery school teachers agree on the importance of providing intellectual opportunities as the child shows he is ready for them. Inappropriate behavior in such a school is usually thought to result from an inappropriate environment; consequently the teacher studies the child to ascertain the kinds of learning activities he is ready to undertake.

For further information on early childhood programs, see titles marked with superscript 2 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

3

LICENSING AND STANDARDS

Most states require some type of licensing for child care facilities. Thus any person or group planning a center or child care program of any kind should first contact the licensing agency in the state. In some states, programs within public school systems or religious organizations are excluded from licensing.

Who Must Be Licensed?

States have various ways of defining the categories included under licensing, but the categories usually include group care centers, group care homes, and family child care homes. In ten states, licensing of a family day care home is not mandatory. Other states require a license for any care-giver who provides child care, on a regular fee basis, away from the child's home. Licensing applies to all agencies whether they are voluntary, private, large or small, nonprofit or profit-making.

License-Granting Agencies

In 42 states, the licensing authority is the state department of welfare. Other states place the licensing responsibility as follows:

Arizona, Connecticut, District of Columbia, Maryland, Massachusetts, and *New Mexico*—the health department

Kansas—health department and social and rehabilitation services (a joint responsibility) with license issued by the health department.

New Jersey—state department of education

North Carolina—North Carolina Child Day Care Licensing Board

Often the authority for licensing is delegated to a county or regional office. The licensing agency frequently relies on the fire marshall, the state department of health, and other agencies for fire safety, health, and sanitation inspections.

Municipalities may impose regulations that are more, but not less, stringent than state requirements. Cities may regulate child care through zoning codes. In some localities, child care is zoned out of residential areas or in other cases it may be specifically zoned out of business areas.

Purpose of Licensing

Norris Class, professor emeritus, University of Southern California, in speaking to local licensing workers in Kansas said:

> Licensing is a protection to the user of services who may not be in a position to inquire into and appraise the standards of the services themselves. It is the community's assurance that certain minimum standards for health and safety have been met.

Licensing protects the responsible operator as well as the consumer since it prevents operations by persons intent on making a profit by cutting the quality of services. Since child care services are expensive, the business sector in some localities may pressure authorities to waive or lower requirements to the detriment of the services provided.

Standards

A state specifies certain standards for space, safety, nutrition, and adult-child ratios. Standards vary a great deal from state to state. Some authorities believe standards should be broad and general with interpretation left to the licensing staff; others believe standards should be specific. It is up to the licensing agency to determine whether or not an applicant meets the standards. Sometimes a provisional or temporary license may be granted until the program can meet the requirements.

Federal Interagency Standards

Federal Interagency Standards represent the minimum standards a center must meet to receive federal funds. The government usually imposes certain standards for services considered suitable for public expenditure. Some states have regulations more stringent than the federal standards.

Federal standards require that all programs receiving federal funds:

- give each child enrolled in day care a medical and dental screening and follow-up treatment if needed
- offer educational activities supervised by a staff member with either training or experience in child growth and development
- offer social and nutritional services
- establish a policy advisory committee when a program has more than 40 children enrolled—the parents to constitute at least half of the committee's membership
- limit to 6 the number of children under age 14 who can be cared for in a family day care home, and to 5 the number who can be cared for if the children are under age 3.
- give continuous staff in-service training and provide nonprofessional members opportunities for career development.

Beginning in 1970, the Office of Child Development sponsored a two-year program of study and planning for new model codes to help state and local agencies develop more realistic and adequate regulations. The program involved (a) a survey of existing practices in the 50 states, (b) regional task force meetings, and (c) a final national conference of 400 leaders in the field meeting in San Antonio, Texas, in October 1972. Final recommendations from this study were approved as a guide for states. The 1968 guidelines are still in effect, pending approval of new interagency regulations to be adopted in the near future. Centers or homes receiving supplemental or "SRS* paid care" payments (Aid to Families with Dependent Children) are required to meet federal standards.

Assessment

To write regulations which are broad and general yet apply to specific cases is admittedly difficult. Licensing deals with intangible qualities as well as physical requirements. It is easier to measure floor space or establish standards for dishwashing than to determine the moral and psychological fitness of the care-giver.

Often personnel assigned to licensing staffs have had little training for the task of assessment. However, since 1962, funds have been available under Title 4-B of the Social Security Amendment for the training of licensing personnel to evaluate child care programs.

Issues in Licensing

Staff-Child Ratio. One of the chief issues in child care is the staff-child ratio required. A high ratio of adults to children usually provides a key to the quality and to the cost of any program. A low ratio of adults to children often results in a structured, custodial type program. Although a high ratio of adults to children can ensure a good program only if the staff is qualified, usually the program is more child-centered than programs with lower ratio of adults.

Competency of Care-Givers. Generally, staff in child care facilities have not had to meet high educational requirements. Of course, academic training does not necessarily ensure good teachers, nor, conversely, does lack of academic training necessarily mean poor staff. Many good staff persons have no formal training. Nevertheless, education is so important that all programs should include preparation and in-service training. A

*Social and Rehabilitative Services, currently the official name for public welfare.

more detailed discussion of educational requirements appears in the chapter on staffing the child care center, page 33.

Child Development Associates (CDA). In an effort to meet the growing demand for qualified personnel for child care facilities at a lower cost, the Office of Child Development (an agency of the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare) in 1972 initiated an accreditation procedure based on a list of competencies desirable for persons working with young children. Persons who attain these competencies will be given the credential "Child Development Associate (CDA)." Such credential will enable the person to work in any facility without further evaluation by the licensing agency. No specifications have been made as to type of training institutions or length of training period. The training involves course work plus at least half-time "on-the-job experience." Whether such training will involve college credit or career development options has not been specified, but it is expected that vocational schools and community or junior colleges will provide much of the training.

The competencies required of CDA's are discussed further in the chapter on staffing the child care center, page 33.

Parents on Advisory Boards. Some agencies and centers do not want parents on advisory or policy boards. These agencies believe most parents lack the expertise of staff or agency personnel. And many working parents who feel pressured for time do not want to be involved in the affairs of the center.

Nevertheless, the most effective way to assure quality care for children's services is through citizen involvement and the education of parents on ways to evaluate the quality of the services they use.

For further information on licensing and standards, see titles marked with superscript 3 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

4

THE PROGRAM

Child care is more than a mere baby-sitting service. It is a family service intended to supplement home care. A program should be flexible enough to accommodate the needs and interests of individual children and at the same time sufficiently structured to help each child attain the following general goals:

- to build a positive and satisfying self-concept
- to achieve an increasing degree of independence and self-reliance
- to develop a sense of responsibility for self and for others
- to learn to give and to receive affection
- to learn to respect the rights and privileges of others
- to learn to share
- to learn certain basic cognitive skills

Recognizing the diverse developmental levels of young children, the teacher should plan a variety of activities through which each child may experience successful participation. There should be a balance between vigorous and stimulating activities and quiet and restful activities.

The educational component of the program should include learning experiences in the areas of language and literature, social relationships, mathematics and science, health and safety, and the creative arts (music, dance, and art).

Success, in part, depends on adequate communication skills. The child needs guidance in developing the abilities to verbalize distinctly and expressively, to understand what others say to him, to listen attentively and appreciatively. The child acquires these skills not only through rote teaching, but through his opportunities to interact with a peer group, to share ideas at group time, to listen to stories, and to have many varied experiences.

Social Skills and Understanding

Through a planned curriculum the child learns about himself and others and how persons work together as families and communities. He begins to become acquainted with democratic values. Through the use of field trips, resource persons in the community, films, and the various media, the child may broaden his horizons to include other cultures and thus begin the gigantic task of understanding that all peoples are not alike but that, nevertheless, all have dignity and worth.

Mathematics

Although formal teaching of computational skills is inappropriate for the preschool child, he does need to develop basic mathematical concepts such as larger than, more than, smaller than, less than, and first, second, last. These are developed more adequately through tactile experiences with materials such as blocks, colored beads, sets of figures, peg boards, dominoes, lotto, and counting games. The child learns through observation of the number of children in a group, the number of chairs at a table, and the position of objects in a line (first, second, third). He needs also to establish a mathematical vocabulary as a basis for later learning.

Science

The science curriculum aids the child in developing a sensitivity to his environment. The young child is naturally curious and needs only the opportunity, the encouragement, and the time to develop an inquiring mind. He should have guidance in using the scientific method of inquiry for solving problems.

It is altogether appropriate to present to young children elementary facts about natural phenomena. Cues for specific topics such as the weather, space travel, the seasons, animals and how they live and grow, human reproduction—to name a few,—should be taken from the child's own expression of interest. The development of an inquiring mind is essential if future generations are to deal successfully with complex problems.

Creative Experiences

The many components of the creative experience—art, music, dance, and creative dramatics in their various forms—afford children opportunities to discover new dimensions in learning through self-expression. Although child care centers offer a variety of activities, children differ in the experiences they enjoy and acquire quite different values and attitudes. Young children need a variety of rich experiences to stimulate successful creative expression. They should be encouraged to taste, feel, smell, touch, question, and experiment and to choose, within limits, what they wish to do and how to do it. This freedom not only helps a child to make choices but also to assume the responsibility for finding some constructive type of learning activity.

In planning a good, well-balanced program, a teacher does not consider separately the various curriculum areas that have been discussed here briefly, but looks at each as an integral part of a total program that includes all facets of the child's day—rest time, meal time, and group and play activities. Play is not just a "period" during the day. Play is a child's work. Through play a child learns to lead and to follow; to speak and to listen; to question and to understand; to succeed and to fail; to confront and to solve problems. Play provides the means by which the child discovers his world and comes to understand it. Large blocks of time should be allowed for the child to choose activities which best meet his needs.

Scheduling

Care away from home in a child care center often results in an extremely long day for the child. A flexible, thoughtfully planned program can mean the difference between a day that is pleasant, invigorating, challenging, and happy and one that is dull, frustrating, monotonous, and tiring.

A general schedule for a day at a child care center might be as follows:

7:30-9:15 a.m. Center opens. Teachers prepare for the morning's first activities. The times when the various children arrive are staggered according to parents' work schedules. The first interaction between the child and the teacher often determines the tone for the day. A cheerful greeting to the child and his parent can help launch a good day. A variety of activities should be available to the child. These may include quiet activities such as table games, books, music, and blocks. After disposing of his wraps, the child is free to choose his own activity.

9:15-9:30 Time to put away toys and games, time for toilet and wash. (Toileting should not be required, nor restricted to a time period. Children should be helped to take the responsibility themselves, but a break in activity offers a good opportunity.)

9:30-9:45 Snack. Many children may eat breakfast at an early hour and are ready for additional nourishment at this time which is also an excellent period for conversation.

9:45-10:15 Group time for planning and sharing experiences.

10:15-11:00 Activity period, during which the teachers make available cognitively oriented activities designed for group or individual participation. Activities begun during this time may be continued later in the day or carried over to the next day. The sensitive teacher will be alert to children's cues that help her discern special interests and needs.

11:00-11:45 Clean up time. Outdoor activities.

11:45-12:00 Preparation for lunch.

12:00-12:30 p.m. Lunch, served family style. Mealtime should be pleasant and relaxed, with conversation and help for the children in gaining skill and independence in eating. Ample time should be planned for slow eaters.

12:30-2:30 Rest on cots. Not all children need the same amount of rest. Some will sleep, but others will only lie quietly on their cots. Soft music played during this period creates a restful atmosphere and helps children relax.

2:30-3:30 Outdoor play. As children awaken from their naps, they may be allowed to go outside, weather permitting, while late sleepers finish napping.

3:30-3:45 Toileting and snack time.

3:45-4:30 Activity period. Music, creative dramatics, or art activities may be introduced during this time. Morning activities not completed may be continued.

4:30-5:30 Free play indoors or outdoors until children are called for. Children probably will leave at staggered times from three o'clock until closing time. During this period, children help put toys away and teachers start preparations for the next day. The arrival of parents offers another opportunity for informal parent-teacher exchange.

These rather large time blocks allow for much flexibility. A well-planned schedule can be modified to cope with unexpected events or to use unexpected opportunities creatively and still maintain enough routine to give the children a sense of security.

In a two- or three-hour program, the schedule resembles the morning schedule given above except that the music, story, and art activities take place during the one activity period. The pace of a shorter program is usually more rapid since it is a supplemental or enrichment program.

For further information about programs, see titles marked with superscript 4 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

5

STORIES AND MUSIC

Books

The variety of books available for young children offers many excellent choices. Naturally some books are poor and many more, mediocre. The books chosen should reflect a wide range of interests and information, for children differ in their interests just as adults do. In general, young children like stories about people, animals, and things that move.

Children need books not only about persons like themselves—fictional characters with whom they can identify—but also about those who are different. Some excellent books show racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic differences. Since small children are just beginning to acquire concepts about the world in which they live, the books chosen should help them to appreciate the richness and diversity of their cultural heritage before they acquire stereotyped and prejudiced concepts.

With the changing roles of men and women in our society, some publishers as well as educators look for stories that avoid stereotyping male and female roles. Many traditional books still portray behavior once considered appropriate for little girls—what they should do and what they should wear—what boys should do, the kinds of work mothers or daddies do in or out of the home. More recent books, however, show women in interesting work outside the home and men in nurturant roles within the home. These books can enlarge a child's horizons and not limit what potentially he or she may or may not do as an adult.

In every case, books should present accurate concepts. Children need books about city life and rural life, about animals and how they live and grow. During the formative years, children have great curiosity. There are many good books to help them find answers and at the same time enrich their lives.

One question frequently arises in any discussion of appropriate books for children: Are fairy tales and other books of fantasy suitable for the very young? Many adults think not and argue that because the very young child is just beginning to learn about the real world, he may have difficulty distinguishing the real from the fanciful; therefore, tales of fantasy should be reserved for later years. Many adults who remember their love of fairy tales probably were exposed to them during their early school rather than preschool years.

The length of the story is an important criterion in the selection of books for young children. Each page should contain only a small amount of text. Pictures should form the main part of the book. Children can often retell a story simply by following the pictures. As children are exposed to stories, their interest and attention span increases, and they are able to enjoy longer stories. The enthusiasm of the adult also encourages an appreciation of books.

Books for a center may be hardbound or paperback. The initial cost of hardbound books is greater, but the books also last longer. If they are to be used by a large number of children, the higher cost is probably justified. Some books come in reinforced or library bindings which are more durable than the usual commercial binding. Many excellent books that at one time could be had only

in hardbound editions are now available in paperback. Thoughtful selection is always a requirement for the choosing of books that are appropriate for the very young.

Libraries, of course, offer a means of extending the supply of books for use of children. Most large city libraries have a special room for children's books. Smaller libraries may have a children's section or a bookmobile to carry books on a regular schedule to more isolated communities. Children who learn early how to use the services of a library and how to care for books have a good start toward the cultivation of a love of books.

Although the following list is by no means complete, it does suggest a number of books that have proved popular with children:

Aliki, *My Five Senses.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1962

Anglund, J.W., *A Friend Is Someone Who Likes You.* New York: Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 1958

Brown, M.B., *Company's Coming for Dinner.* Eau Claire, WI: E.M. Hale & Company, 1963

Brown, M.W., *The Important Book.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1949

Brown, M.W., *Noisy Books.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., (series, 1939-1951)

Brown, M.W., *Sh-Bang!* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1943

Brown, M.W., *The Big Red Barn.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1961

Buckley, H.E., *Grandfather and I.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1961

Buckley, H.E., *Grandmother and I.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1966

Buckley, H.E., *Josie and the Snow.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1964

Burton, V.L., *The Little House.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1948

Burton, V.L., *Mike Mulligan and His Steam Shovel.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1939

Carroll, R., *Where's the Bunny?* New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1950

Conklin, G., *We Like Bugs.* New York: Holiday House, Inc., 1962

Conklin, G., *I Like Butterflies.* New York: Holiday House, Inc., 1960

Cook, B., *Looking for Susie.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc. (Young Scott Books), 1965

Cook, B., *The Curious Little Kitten.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc. (Young Scott Books), 1956

Duvoisin, R., *The House of Four Seasons.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1956

Ets, M.H., *Play With Me.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1963

Ets, M.H., *Gilberto and the Wind.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1965

Ets, M.H., *In the Forest.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1944

Flack, M., *Ask Mr. Bear.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1932

Flack, M., *Angus* series. Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1931-41

Flack, M., *Story About Ping.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1933

Flack, M., *The New Pet.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1943

Flack, M., *Wait for William.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935

Francoise, *What Do You Want To Be?* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1957

Francoise, *Jeanne-Marie* (series). New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1950-1960

Freeman, D., *Mop Top.* Chicago: Children's Press, Inc., 1965

Gag, W., *Millions of Cats.* New York: Coward, McCann & Geoghegan, Inc., 1938

Gans, R., *Birds Eat and Eat and Eat.* New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1963

Gay, Z., *What's Your Name?* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1955

Green, M. McB., *Is It Hard? Is It Easy?* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc. (Young Scott Books), 1960

Greene, C., *I Want To Be* (A Bus Driver, An Animal Doctor, A Dentist, A Fireman, A Nurse, A Policeman, A Dairy Farmer, A Storekeeper, A Space Pilot, A Ship Captain). Chicago: Children's Press, Inc., 1957-62 (series)

Hoban, R., *Frances* (series). New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1960-68

Keats, E.J., *Whistle for Willie.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1964

Keats, E.J., *Hi, Cat!* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1972

Keats, E.J., *The Snowy Day.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1962

Keats, E.J., *Peter's Chair.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1967

Kessler, E. and L., *Big Red Bus.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1964

Klein, L., *Mud, Mud, Mud.* New York: Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1962

Krasilovsky, P., *The Very Little Girl.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1953
Krasilovsky, P., *The Very Little Boy.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc.
Kraus, R., *The Growing Story.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1947
Kraus, R., *The Carrot Seed.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1971
Lenski, L., *Papa Small.* New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1951
Lenski, L., *Fireman Small.* New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1961
Lenski, L., *Little Farm.* New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1973
Lenski, L., *Little Airplane.* New York: Henry Z. Walck, Inc., 1938
Lenski, L., *The Little Family.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1932
Lionni, L., *Inch by Inch.* New York: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1962
Lionni, L., *Little Blue and Little Yellow.* New York: Astor-Honor, 1959
McCloskey, R., *Blueberries for Sal.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1968
McCloskey, R., *Make Way for Ducklings.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1969
Moon, G. and C., *One Little Indian.* Chicago: Albert Whitman & Co., 1967
Nodset, J., *Go Away, Dog.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1963
Nodset, J., *Who Took the Farmer's Hat?* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1963
Petersham, M. and M., *Circus Baby.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1950
Petersham, M. and M., *The Box With Red Wheels.* New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1973
Politi, L., *Rosa.* New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1963
Rey, H.A., *Curious George* (series). Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1940's and 1950's.
Schlein, M., *Fast Is Not a Lady Bug.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1953
Schlein, M., *How Do You Travel?* Nashville, TN: Abingdon Press, 1954.
Selsam, M., *Seeds and More Seeds.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1959
Selsam, M., *All About Eggs.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1952
Selsam, M., *All Kinds of Babies.* New York: Scholastic Book Services, 1969
Slbodkina, E., *Caps for Sale.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1947
Tresselt, A., *White Snow, Bright Snow.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1947
Tresselt, A., *Rain Drop Splash.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1962
Tresselt, A., *Hi, Mister Robin.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1950
Udry, J., *A Tree Is Nice.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1956
Udry, J., *Let's Be Enemies.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1969
Webber, I., *Bits That Grow.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1949
Wright, E., *Saturday Walk.* Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1954
Yashima, M. and T., *Momo's Kitten.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1961
Yashima, T., *Umbrella.* New York: Viking Press, Inc., 1970
Zaffo, G. J., *The Big Book* (of real boats and ships, fire engines, trains, airplanes, trucks). New York: Grosset & Dunlap, Inc., 1950's (series)
Zion, G., *All Falling Down.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1951
Zion, G., *Hide and Seek Day.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1954
Zion, G., *Harry and Dirty Dog.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1956
Zion, G., *No Roses for Harry.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1958
Zion, G., *Harry by the Sea.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1965
Zion, G., *Dear Garbage Man.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1957
Zion, G., *Summer Snowman.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1955
Zolowtow, C., *One Step, Two.* New York: Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 1955
Zolowtow, C., *The Sky Was Blue.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1963
Zolowtow, C., *When I Have a Little Girl.* New York: Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 1965

For further information about reading for children, see the following:

Bibliography of Books for Children. 1969. Obtain from Association for Childhood International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20016
Children's Books for $1.50 or Less (revised each year). Obtain from Association for Childhood

International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20016

Children's Books of the Year. Published annually by Child Study Association of America, Inc., 50 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10010

Dodson, F., *How to Parent.* New York: New American Library, 1971. (Appendix contains "A Parent's Guide to Children's Books for the Preschool Years.")

Eakin, K., *Good Books for Children.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1966.

Frank, J., *Your Child's Reading Today.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1969

Griffin, L., *Books in the Preschool: A Guide to Selecting, Purchasing, and Using Children's Books.* Obtain from National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20009

Griffin, L., *Multi-Ethnic Books for Young Children: An Annotated Bibliography for Parents and Teachers,* 1970. Obtain from National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Ave., NW, Washington, DC 20009

Larrick, N., *A Parent's Guide to Children's Reading.* Garden City, NY: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1964; also in paperback from Pocket Books (Simon & Schuster, Inc.), 1969

Flannel-Board Stories. A flannel board offers an excellent prop for story-telling or for the presentation of concepts. Boards may be large—24x36 inches—for the teacher's use or small for the child's individual use.

Construction. A flannel board may be made of plywood or heavy cardboard and covered with heavy flannel, felt, or nonwoven inner lining fabric. Props or a base for the board make the board easier to use. Some boards are made on one side of a large packing box covered with felt or flannel. Felt can be glued or stapled to the surface, but flannel tears more easily than felt does and should be sewed on.

Figures. Figures can be made of various materials such as felt or nonwoven inner lining fabric or construction paper with a flannel, felt, or sandpaper backing. Figures may also be illustrations from magazines, backed with flannel or felt. Several small pieces of felt work better than one large piece. Since the inner lining fabric is somewhat translucent, it may be placed over illustrations and tracings made. The figures can then be colored with bright magic markers or crayons.

The best stories are often those with a repetitive theme. *Ask Mr. Bear* by Marjorie Flack is an especially good one that allows each child to hold an animal and place it on the board at the right moment in the story.

A set of animals, birds, insects, and characters provides a basis for many stories, some of which could be created spontaneously. Children like to tell and retell stories. Other sets of figures, shapes, colors, and numbers offer opportunity for many kinds of learning.

Reading or Telling the Story. In general it is easier to read to a small group of five or six children at a time. If the group is too large or if there are competing attractions in the room, a child may be unable to concentrate on the story. Before the reading begins the children must be comfortable and able to see the reader.

The decision on whether to read or to tell stories depends on the varied backgrounds and experiences of the children and on the nature of the story. Some stories rely on impact of the actual words as written and lose meaning unless the story is repeated verbatim. Picture books obviously tell the story visually. However, children who have had little or no experience with books may need other bridging experiences before they are ready to listen to stories. Finger plays or simple songs may gain attention and hold interest.

At first children may also be more attentive if the teacher tells, rather than reads, or uses visual aids such as puppets or flannel-board figures. Young children are visually oriented and are usually attracted to these presentations. At the same time, the story teller can maintain eye contact and thus hold the attention of the children.

The reader should read slowly to young children and enunciate clearly but she should also read with enthusiasm, changing tone and speed to suit the characters or the theme. If the book has pictures it should be held so that the children can see them.

Stopping during the reading to explain or answer questions interrupts the story. Usually, it is better to explain unfamiliar words or concepts at the beginning of the story and save most questions until the end. However, as the story proceeds such questions as ". . . and then what do you think

happened?" or ". . . and what do you think she did?" may increase the interest of the children.

At the end of the story, the children may be encouraged to answer questions about the story, to retell the story, or to dramatize it. Sometimes children enjoy a story so much they want it repeated immediately. Favorite stories may be read until the child knows every word.

A familiarity with books may provide the most important reading readiness activity for children. When they know the pleasure and satisfaction derived from books they are usually eager to enter the world of reading by themselves without coaxing or prompting. They will, however, still want to have stories read to them, for often the young child is interested in stories that are more advanced than his reading ability.

Music for Children

Any good program for young children includes music in a variety of ways. Songs can be sung spontaneously as the children play or introduced as learning and enrichment activities. Children often become acquainted with new words through songs. Music provides emotional release for many children. It may soothe the restless child or allow a troubled child to work out his feelings.

Songs for the young child should be fairly low in pitch (middle C to G) and within a range of notes the children can reach. Nursery rhymes, set to music, or improvised words for familiar tunes help extend the young child's repertory. Repetitive phrases or verses-to-add encourage children to sing along. In songs with finger play or body movements, children frequently join in the actions before they start to sing. Songs that engage the child in motion are especially appropriate for use when children are waiting for a new activity to begin or for other children to join the group. In addition, finger plays teach the child to follow directions; lengthen his attention span; help him to develop motor control and eye-hand coordination; help him also to understand concepts of size, place, and numbers from 1 to 5 or 1 to 10.

Creative dance may also help the child develop body control or coordination. A child should not become inhibited or made self-conscious in his response to music. Scarves, balloons, or other additions may interest the timid child.

Young children should not be expected to participate in a rhythm band but should be allowed to experiment freely with a variety of musical instruments. Bells and drums are especially suited to the interests of these children.

A variety of records to listen to, sing with, or dance to is essential for a good program. Children like to be able to operate the record player themselves and can usually be taught proper care and use of records and player.

Titles of Songs. (Suggested for preschool children)

Are You Sleeping? (Frere Jacques)
A Tisket a Tasket
Baa Baa, Black Sheep
Baby Bumble Bee
Barnyard Song
Bear Went Over the Mountain
Bicycle Built for Two
Bingo
Blue Tail Fly
Clap Your Hands
Did You Ever See a Lassie?
Down at Cape Kennedy
Eensey, Weensey Spider
Everybody Do This
Farmer in the Dell
Five Little Ducks
Five Little Freckled Frogs
Five Little Monkeys
Galloping Horses
Git on Board
Head, Shoulders, Knees, and Toes
Hello, Everybody, Hello
Here Is My Bunny
Hippity Hop to the Barber Shop
Horsey, Horsey
Hush, Little Baby
I'm a Little Teapot
It's Snowing
I've Been Working on the Railroad
Johnny Works with One Hammer
King of France
Kumulada
Let Everyone Join in the Game
Let's Take a Little Seed
Little Gray Ponies
Little Green Frog
Little Lisa
Little Man at the Window Stood
Little Red Caboose
Little Red Wagon
Little White Duck
London Bridge
Looby Lou
Mary Had a Little Lamb
Mary Wore Her Red Dress
Miss Polly Had a Dolly

Muffin Man
Mulberry Bush
My Bonnie
My Kitty
My Rocket Ship
Oats and Beans
Oh, Dear, What Can the Matter Be?
Oh, Susanna
Oh, Where Has My Little Dog Gone?
Old MacDonald
On Top of Spaghetti
Open, Shut Them
Paw, Paw, Patch
Pease Porridge Hot
Peter Penguin
Pick a Bale of Cotton
Pop Goes the Weasel
Resting Time
Ring Around a Rosie
Row, Row, Row Your Boat
Sailing, Sailing
Sally Go 'Round the Sunshine
She'll Be Coming Round the Mountain
Shoo Fly, Don't Bother Me
Skip to My Lou
So Long, It's Been Good to Know Yuh!
Someone Wants to Know Your Name
Sweetly Sings the Donkey
Swinging, Swinging
Ten Little Indians
The More We Sing Together
The Noble Duke of York
There's a Little Wheel A-Turning in My Heart
There Was a Little Turtle
There Was an Old Lady Who Swallowed a Fly
The Trees Are Gently Swaying
The Wheels on the Bus
This Is How, the Big Tall Indian
This Is the Way We. . .
This Is What I Can Do
This Old Man
Twinkle, Twinkle Little Star
Two Little Dicky Birds
Warm Kitty, Soft Kitty
Way Down in the Nest
What Shall We Do When We All Go Out?
Where Is Thumbkin?
Who's That Tapping at the Window?
Yankee Doodle

Records for Children. The following is by no means a complete list of records for children but contains those that have proved to be favorites in various centers. In addition, many classical, semi-classical, and popular records are appropriate for child listening.

Note: For further sources of children's records, see **Appendix, page 69.**

Little Favorites (16 classical songs including *Jingle Bells; Eency Weency Spider; Hush, Little Baby*)
Nursery and Mother Goose Songs
Songs to Grow On, Volume I (Woody Guthrie with guitar)
Rhythm records (especially mechanical rhythms)
Songs for Children with Special Needs (slower tempo, lower pitch)
(Available from Bowman Co., Inc., 622 Rodier Drive, Glendale, CA 91201)

Building a City
Creepy, Crawly Caterpillar
Daddy Comes Home
Indoors When It Rains
Little Red Wagon
Rainy Day
The Carrot Seed
Train to the Farm
Train to the Ranch
Train to the Zoo
(Available from Children's Record Guild, 27 Thompson Street, New York, NY 10013)

American Indian Dances
By the Sea, By the Sea (activity record by Marcia Berman)
Children's Songs of Spain
Folk Songs for Young People (sung by Pete Seeger)
(Available from Folkways Records and Service Corporation, 165 West 46th Street, New York, NY 10036)

Free To Be—You and Me
(Available from Ms. Foundation, publishers of *Ms.* magazine, 370 Lexington Avenue, New York, NY 10017)

Creative Movement and Rhythmic Exploration (Hap Palmer record AR533)
Learning Basic Skills to Rhythm (Hap Palmer record AR514)
(Available from Educational Activities, Inc., Freeport, NY 11520)

American Indian Dances
Animal Rhythms
Indian Drums
Hallowe'en Rhythms
(Available from Phoebe James, Box 286, Verdugo City, CA 91046)

All Aboard
A Walk In the Forest
By Rocket to the Moon
Every Day We Grow I-O
Let's Be Firemen
Little Indian Drum
My Little Gray Pony
My Playful Scarf

My Playmate, the Wind
Nothing To Do
People Who Come to Our House
Sleepy Family
Today Is Your Birthday
Trains and Planes
Winter Fun
(Available from Young People's Records, Inc., 100 Fifth Avenue, New York, NY 10013)

Let's Play Musical Games (Columbia record HL952)
Mary Poppins (Disneyland records)
Old MacDonald Had a Farm (Golden records)
Sesame Street records
(Available from most local stores)

For further information on stories and music, see titles marked with superscript 5 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

6

ART AND SCIENCE

Art activities for the very young child are largely manipulative. Through a variety of well-planned activities that allow him to see, feel, smell, and even taste, he progressively becomes aware of his environment and is able to communicate this awareness to others. Moving at his own pace, he develops the large muscles, increases eye-hand coordination, and enlarges his understanding of shape and color concepts which build toward reading readiness. He develops socially by learning to share, to take turns, and to assume responsibilities for materials and for cleaning up afterward.

Stages of Development

The developmental stages of the child's drawing or creative activity cover a span of about five years from ages two to seven. During the *manipulative period* (ages two to four), the child has a short attention span, limited eye-hand coordination, and underdeveloped small muscles. His main purpose in play is to experiment, to touch, and to feel. For him the process of doing is important, and the finished product of little interest. He plays alone, but in parallel with other children.

His work is characterized by scribbling; large movements; lack of organized design; experimentation and exploration; and overlays of color, one on another.

The years, four to seven, represent the *presymbolic period.* During this time, the child begins to take interest in his product. His attention span, though still short, increases. Control of his small muscles and his eye-hand coordination improve. He becomes more familiar with materials. He still likes to touch and to feel. He is able to participate in small groups and seeks approval.

His drawings show symbols intended to express ideas; contain recognizable forms; illustrate what he knows, not what he sees; indicate a growing awareness of organization and relationship; and begin to tell a story through identification of symbols.

Implications for the Teacher

Knowing the common characteristics and interests of children at this developmental stage, the teacher can provide materials suited to the child's needs, create a good classroom atmosphere, and establish amenable parent-teacher-child relationships.

Materials appropriate for muscular development include large brushes, crayons, and paper. All materials should be washable and safe to use both indoors and outdoors where space should be provided.

Since art time is not the time to teach tidiness, the teacher may balance messy materials such as chalk, soap bubbles, and finger paints with blocks or puzzles that are relatively clean. In providing a variety of activities, she may intersperse familiar activities with new ones and simple ones with those that require much supervision. Each activity should be gauged according to the child's attention span. The children should be free to move from one activity to another.

There is probably no exact formula for the creation of a good classroom atmosphere, but the following rules can help:

- Allow the child freedom to manipulate within agreed limits.
- Observe and give aid when needed but do not interfere.
- Encourage the child to talk about his work but don't insist that he know what he is trying to draw, paint, or build.
- Be sure the physical environment is comfortable and cheerful.
- In every way help the child to feel at home in the classroom.

In promoting good relationships among teacher, parents, and child, the teacher must first know the parents. She can then help the parents understand that the child's art is to be appreciated, not judged; suggest appropriate comments for the child's work; explain the values of various art activities and equipment for home use; recommend appropriate clothing for school wear; and involve the parents whenever possible.

Finger Paint

Why is finger painting considered a valuable activity? Because it (a) develops the senses (seeing, feeling, moving), (b) improves coordination and provides the means whereby a child can learn about color, (c) provides relaxation through the release of tensions, (d) encourages imagination, and (e) requires no tools.

Since finger painting demands much supervision, the teacher will do well to limit the activity to a few children at a time. Her first responsibility then is to provide a comfortable, safe working place with a flat, smooth surface where the child can stand to paint. For this activity, the child needs glossy paper and an apron with short or no sleeves. Before the child can begin, the teacher or the child must moisten the paper, smooth it out, and place about a tablespoon of paint in the center. Some children will start at once to experiment and explore whereas others may have to be encouraged to do so. All should be encouraged to try using different parts of their hands and arms and to talk about their paintings. Although the activity itself and not the finished product is the important consideration, children should be allowed time to find satisfaction in their efforts. By requiring that children assist in cleaning up afterwards, the teacher can help them to accept responsibility.

Some don'ts for the teacher: Don't (a) insist that every child finger paint, (b) put pressure on a child to be neat, (c) ask a child to make a picture, (d) rush a child to finish so that another child can paint.

Some helpful suggestions for the teacher:

- In handling a wet painting, lift it by two corners and place it on newspaper to dry.
- Iron painting on wrong side to straighten curled edges.
- Use paintings for gift wrappings, cards, covers for books, waste-basket coverings.
- Let child paint on plastic cover until he is satisfied with his painting. Then press a dry, absorbent, inexpensive paper such as newsprint on the painting and rub the paper with palms of hands. The paper will take up the child's drawing. A washable table or tray may be used when only the painting process and not the finished painting is important.

Modeling

Modeling holds many values for a child in the developmental stage: It gratifies a basic need to work wth the hands; furnishes opportunities to use large and small muscles; appeals to tactile as well as visual senses; builds concepts of three-dimensional forms; demands pounding, pushing, and pulling that release tensions; stimulates imagination; and encourages language development.

The materials for modeling are few and simple: clay or play dough, tongue depressors to serve as knives for cutting, spools and wooden sticks with which to make designs in the clay.

Each teacher, of course, may vary procedures to suit her particular group, but in every instance she should supply a generous amount of modeling material and a proper place to work; make sure the clay is soft enough for small fingers to manipulate; vary the texture of the material for tactile enrichment; allow each child time and opportunity to pound, push, and pull; encourage children to clean up when finished.

What she should *not* do is stress neatness and cleanliness, ask a child to model a specific object, make much of the finished product rather than the process.

Poster Paint Activities

These are activities that a child may enjoy after he has had some experience in finger painting. Different types of surfaces may be painted. For example:

paper towels
paper plates
woodwork products
finger-paint paper
sea shells
wallpaper
clay products
dried play dough
wooden blocks
printed newsprint
cloth
egg cartons
branches
paper drycleaning bags
oilcloth
window shade
canvas or burlap
colored construction paper
pine cones
cardboard boxes
stones
magazine pages
paper bags
corrugated paper
aluminum foil

The traditional primary easel colors, when mixed, may give unusual combinations of colors, tints, greyed tones, coral, chartreuse, lavender, etc. Children may mix their own colors to be used at the easel or table if the teacher first sets out the individual colors in muffin tins or paper cups. By mixing primary colors the child learns the composition of secondary colors. By mixing white with primary colors the child learns about pastels and by mixing black with colors or complementary colors together he learns about shades and greyed tones.

All sorts of household supplies offer tools for children to use in painting. The teacher should consider safety, however, before choosing ones that a child may handle. A list of supplies and procedures are given below:

Ink Blots. Fold paper and then open it out. Drop thick paint onto the paper from tongue depressor. Use a separate depressor for each color. Refold paper and then reopen.

String Painting. Dip short lengths of string or yarn into bowls of paint—one length for each color—and then let the string fall onto the paper. Fold paper in half and hold shut while pulling out the string.

Object Printing. Soak folded paper toweling in paint and place each color in a separate bowl. Use several objects such as spools, corks, sink stoppers, sponges, jar lids, small blocks, walnut shells, foam hair rollers, potato masher, comb, and vegetables cut in shapes. Press or rub objects on towels and then on paper.

Painting with Objects. Substitute feathers, Q-tips, combs, small scrub brushes, tooth brushes for paint brushes. Painting may be done at easel or at a table with paint in bowls.

Dry Powder Painting. Put dry powdered tempera in dishes at easel or on table and use wads of cotton to paint. This technique produces a soft effect.

Textured Painting. Mix a substance such as salt (which sparkles when dry), sand, fine sawdust, or dry coffee grounds with the paint before painting. A little glue added ensures adherence of the substance to the paper. Soap flakes sprinkled on the paper while the paint is still wet also produce an interesting texture.

Soap Painting. Whip soap flakes or soap powder with water; add dry powder paint. With brushes, paint on colored or white paper. The mixture is very stiff and excellent for creating designs. As soap hardens, more water may be added.

Painting With Epsom Salt. Mix one part water with two parts Epsom salt. Paint on dark paper.

Marbled Paper. Use tempera or poster paints and any rather rough paper such as brown, white, or colored wrapping paper, or paper bags. Wet paper thoroughly and spread out on the table. With brush or soft cloth dab splotches of paint, one or more colors, at random over the paper. Crumple paper into a ball and gently squeeze out excess water taking care not to tear paper. Carefully spread paper to dry. When it is dry, press with warm iron. This paper is very effective for book binding, for portfolio covers, and for gift wrappings.

Crayon and Paint. Draw on paper with light-colored crayon and then cover with a thin wash of dark paint. Paint will cover all but crayon markings.

Squeeze-bottle Painting. Fill plastic squeeze bottles such as catsup or mustard containers with

thick paint. Be sure bottles have a screw top. Let children squirt paint in designs on paper.

Detergent Paint. Mix paint with detergent and paint on glazed surfaces, plastic, foil, or glass.

Spool Painting. Notch the ends of spools in various shapes. Dip the spool into a shallow bowl of paint and roll spool on paper to create patterns.

Self-Portraits. With a dark crayon, trace the outline of a child as he lies on a large sheet of paper. (Have paint available in shallow bowls or cups, set in bread pan to avoid the chance that a child may kick the paint over.) The child then paints inside the outline of his silhouette.

Spatter Painting. This project calls for wire screening, framed so that all rough edges are hidden and well covered; tooth brushes; bowls of thin paint; and objects such as paper silhouettes, leaves, cooky cutters, plastic spoons, yarn, string, small blocks, corks. These latter are used to create designs. The procedure is to place the selected object on paper, cover with the screen, dip the brush in paint, and rub the brush across the screen to spatter the paint over the paper. The object when removed leaves a design for which the spatters provide a background. For elaborate designs, easel paper may be cut into circles, triangles, free-form shapes, Easter eggs, Christmas trees, pumpkins, flowers, houses, fish, etc.

Straw Blowing. Use straws, spoons, saucers, liquid tempera of waterlike consistency, and manila or colored construction paper. Pour paint into saucers and show the child how to dip out a very small amount of paint with a spoon. Place drops of paint on the paper and blow the drops with a straw. Blow lightly, pointing the straw in first one direction and then another. Try straw blowing with white paint and black construction paper. The children will enjoy blowing and watching the paint spread.

Colored Chalk. When coloring with chalk, from time to time dip the tip of the chalk in water, sugar water, milk, or liquid starch. (Dipped white chalk on dark paper is also effective.)

Oil and Tempera. Put water and blue tempera in a bowl. Add a few drops of oil and yellow tempera and dip strips of paper in the bowl.

Science for Young Children

To an adult, *science* may imply complicated explanations or experiments. For the child *science* may mean simply an opportunity to handle, investigate, taste, feel, or observe. Children desire to know about the world around them.

The teacher of young children may not plan a specific science lesson but she may introduce meaningful materials: seeds to plant, fruits and vegetables to cut, animals to feed, a place to cook. She guides the children but is also sensitive to their needs and interests. She helps them find satisfactory answers to the questions they ask. Since many science observations and questions occur spontaneously, the adult should be informed on a variety of subjects. Of course, he or she cannot possibly know everything about all the topics that interest a child. But children do deserve correct answers to their questions. The teacher may honestly say, "I don't know, but let's find out." In fact, that response is preferable if the answer is one the child can discover for himself. The teacher should ask leading questions such as: "What do *you* think?" or "What do you suppose would happen if. . . ?"

To encourage the child's type of "scientific investigation," a space such as table, shelf, or corner area should be provided for objects of interest that children or adults may bring to the center. The area might contain, for example, a birds' nest or wasps' nest, sea shells, rocks, leaves, flowers, a prism, magnets, a flashlight, magnifying glass, and other items for children to examine.

Stories, pictures, and excursions or simple walks can extend the children's knowledge. The alert teacher provides a variety of experiences and helps foster the children's powers of observation. The following suggest experiences appropriate for young children:

Plants. (1) caring for growing plants; (2) planting seeds or beans in dirt or on a sponge; (3) rooting bulbs and sweet potatoes.

Animals. (1) caring for fish, hamsters, gerbils, guinea pigs, rabbits, or parakeets; (2) observing animals—such as kittens or puppies—brought to the center; (3) visiting a farm or zoo.

Water. (1) pouring water into different size containers; (2) floating objects; (3) freezing water; (4) making soap bubbles.

Weather. (1) observing seasonal changes; (2) discussing the adaptation of plants, trees, animals, and people to changes in weather; (3) discussing the children's experiences with rain, fog, dew, snow, and wind.

Sky. (1) observing sunlight and shadows and (2) observing clouds.

Machines. (1) watching heavy machines at work; (2) using egg beaters, vacuum cleaners, and other household machines; (3) using pulleys, inclined plane, and simple woodworking tools; (4) weighing and measuring objects.

Cooking. (1) making applesauce; (2) making soup; (3) making popcorn; (4) cooking eggs; (5) mixing batter for pancakes; (6) squeezing oranges or mixing frozen juice.

For further information on art and science, see titles marked with the superscript 6 listed under **Bibliography,** pages 58 to 62.

7

THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT

Inside Area

Needs for indoor space depend partly on the type of program. A full-day program requires extra space for meals and naps. Most states list minimum square-foot requirements for indoor and outdoor space; therefore, licensing requirements should be checked before plans are made.

Children need room to run and jump, to move around freely without bumping into each other or the furniture. They also need quiet corners where they can be alone. Some types of built-in equipment accommodate these needs, for example, a built-in platform with a climbing ladder and slide at one end and hide-away cubicles underneath. (See photograph on facing page.) This structure approximates 4 x 7 feet with a height slightly over 3 feet. The 3-foot cubes in the large open side are covered with different textile surfaces to give the child a variety of sensory experiences.

Movable storage shelves, portable easels, lightweight folding tables, and stacking chairs allow for flexibility in room arrangements. Well-planned and attractive arrangements invite constructive play and facilitate supervision.

The amount of space allotted to activities should change as the interests of the children change. For example, the housekeeping area usually attracts a large number of children at the beginning of the year, probably because the unit represents a link to home. Later, as the children become absorbed in block-building projects, that play area must be enlarged.

Room arrangements should anticipate traffic patterns and the compatibility or lack of it among the various activities. Insofar as possible, noisy activities should be separated from the quiet ones.

Certain areas are basic to any center, including the following:

- a housekeeping area with kitchen and bedroom facilities and a bed large enough for a child
- a creative area with double easel, storage space, table, and water nearby for clean-up activities
- an area for manipulative play including table games and puzzles
- a story area that may or may not contain table and chairs but should be equipped with comfortable seating such as carpet squares or yard-square pillows stuffed with foam (two are adequate)
- a music area with record player and rhythm instruments, and possibly brightly colored scarves, balloons, ribbons, or crepe paper streamers that invite children to dance
- a space for plants, pets, and science projects.

Materials and Supplies. Materials and supplies for a child care center must, of course, satisfy the demands of the program offered; therefore, they may vary from center to center. To meet basic criteria, however, materials should be:

- appropriate for the ages and developmental levels of the children served
- attractive and aesthetically appealing
- interesting and challenging
- safely constructed.

In addition, materials should:

- provide a variety of different experiences
- stimulate cognitive growth

- provide opportunities for the child to develop socialization skills
- encourage creativity
- provide a means for the child to develop fine and gross muscular skills.

The following suggested list of essential items is by no means inclusive and should be adapted to the needs of a particular program.

Art Materials. *Paper* (in a wide variety of sizes and textures)

manila	tissue	butcher
newsprint	construction	brown wrap
finger paint	newspaper	

Paint (Primary colors may be mixed to alter shades)
dry powder
tempera
finger (may be made with liquid starch and dry powder paint)

Brushes (from ½ inch to 1¼ inch wide, long handled with flat and round bristles)

Chalk (white and colored)

Markers

magic marker pens	water crayons
assorted felt-tip pens	

Paste and glue

Clay (see Appendix for play dough recipe)

moist	dry	modeling

Scissors (Include some for left-handed children)

Innumerable articles such as muffin tins, shallow pans, soap flakes, egg beaters, spools, hair curlers, tongue depressors, cookie cutters, a collage box encourage creativity in the art area.

Block and Construction Area
Unit blocks
Hollow blocks
Large and small parquetry
Plastic interlocking bricks (large and small)
Tinker toys (small and giant)
Prismatic blocks
Steering wheel
Farm set
Rubber people
Transportation toys (large, durable wooden boats, cars, trucks, airplanes)
Small rubber and wooden toys
Puppets and wooden people

Housekeeping Center

Dolls (assorted sizes, black and white)	Table and chairs
Cash register and play money	Rocking chairs
Carriages	Iron and board
Doll bed (large enough for a child)	Dress-up clothes
Stove	Doll clothes
Refrigerator	Tea sets and cooking pans
Sink	Telephones
	Mirror (full-length)

Woodworking Area
Workbench
Hammer and nails
Saws
Screwdrivers
Optional items—hinges, screws, pulleys, springs, cord
Wood scraps (soft enough to be manageable)
Braces
Sandpaper

Music Area
Record player and records
Rhythm instruments (drums, bells, rhythm sticks, and castenets)
Dancing skirts, scarves, streamers
Piano or auto harp (if budget allows)

Book and Story Area

An assortment of good books	Pillows, rugs, or mats
Display case or table	Flannel board
	Puppets

Manipulative Games and Toys
An assortment of puzzles, nesting boxes, peg board, beads, table games, lotto sets, pounding boards, playing cards, dominoes, checkers, and "brought from home" materials should be available to the children

Science Material

Assorted magnets	Magnifying glasses
Mirrors (convex and concave)	Prism
	Animals and cages

Planters, seeds, and bulbs
Aquarium, fish, and supplies
Batteries
Copper wire, wire cutters
Thermometer
Plastic measuring cups and spoons
Plastic bottles
Clear plastic tubing
Balance scales
Items in feel, smell, and taste boxes
Nature study materials

Mathematics Supplies

Blocks—pattern, geometric, and mosaic blocks, interlocking blocks, prism blocks, grouping sets, color cubes
Sets of miniature cars, animals, toys, golf tees, clothes-pins, etc. (for counting, sorting, matching, ordering)
Geometric shapes
Abacus
Rulers, measuring tapes

Audiovisual Materials (good to have, but not essential)

Head phone listening set with adapter
Cassette player with cassette cartridges
Tape recorder
Slide projector
Filmstrips
Instructional pictures of farm animals, zoo animals, friends, community helpers

Prop Box. All sorts of objects, large and small, may be accumulated over time to provide a prop box for "make-believe" play. The props might be those appropriate for playing doctor, nurse, cowboy, Indian, office worker, beauty operator, barber, fireman, mailman, policeman, teacher, storekeeper, checkout clerk, mother, or father. All articles, of course, should be safe for the very small child to use. Fabrics should be nonflammable; stuffed animals or dolls should be washable; all articles should be free from small detachable parts that could be swallowed; free from sharp or rough edges that might cut; and free from wires, nails, or pins sharp enough to puncture the skin.

Outside Area

Many state licensing regulations specify that a facility should provide a minimum of 75 to 100 square feet of outdoor space per child. Some regulations also specify that children should spend a certain amount of time in active outdoor play except during inclement weather. The amount, of course, depends on the length of time a child spends in a center. Most regulations also require that the yard be fenced in unless there are natural boundaries. In some cases insufficient outdoor space may be offset by a greater amount of indoor space, such as a gymnasium for the needed active play. If at all possible, a good outdoor play area should provide:

- a balance of space in the sun and shade
- a grassy spot for running, playing, and relaxing
- a garden spot and place for animals
- a sand box
- a space for water play
- a hard surface area for riding wheel toys

Outdoor equipment usually includes:

Jungle gym
Open barrels or terra cotta pipe, set in concrete
Sliding board
Saw horses with planks or walking boards. (Cleats should be bolted to the bottom of the planks 6 inches from the end to keep the planks from slipping.)
Tire swing
Balls, jump ropes
Gardening tools—rakes, hoes, shovels
Sand toys—bowls, measuring sets, sieves, pails, sand table, and play oven
Wheel toys—tricycles of various sizes, wagons, wheelbarrows—with traffic signs

Too often a center depends on commercial playground equipment. Instead, donations from parents and others interested in a center and volunteers with some carpentry skill can turn the outdoor play space into an exciting and educational area at less expense. Three precautions: The equipment must be sturdy and of proper size for small children. The wood of the finished product should be well-sanded and smooth with no splinters. Several coats of paint or varnish are essential for maintenance of the equipment.

For further information on the physical environment, see titles marked with the superscript 7 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

8

STAFFING THE CHILD CARE CENTER

Staff Size

Some states have mandatory limitations for group sizes in child care centers and requirements for the ratio of adults to children. Licensing regulations should therefore be consulted as the first step.

The size of the staff, of course, depends upon the number of children enrolled. Room arrangement, ages of children, length of care day, and philosophy of the center also determine staff number and qualifications. Two adults for each group should be available at all times. In general, no group should exceed 20 children and should be smaller for the younger children. Since many situations call for multi-age grouping, adjustments may be made accordingly. As a rule-of-thumb, the ratio of adults to children should be as follows:

Infants and toddlers—two adults for every 6 to 10 children

Three- and four-year-olds—two adults for every 12 to 15 children

Five-year-olds—one adult for every 15 to 20 children with an additional adult on call at all times. For disadvantaged children, the ratio of adults to children should be higher.

The staff may consist of a director (or a person who fills the dual role of director-teacher), teachers, aides, cook, housekeeper, nurse, and social worker, depending on the size of the facility. In many states, no person may be counted in the staff ratio who spends less than 50 percent of his or her time with the children.

Competencies for Persons Working with Young Children

The most important consideration in assessing an individual's competency for work with children is first of all the character and personality of the person himself, whether he be a parent, teacher, aide, or volunteer. Can he contribute to an atmosphere of openness and trust? Does he believe in the worth and dignity of each individual and show his regard for the potential of each as a growing, self-actualizing person? What are his expectations for children? Studies show that *methods* are a less important variable than are *persons*. Children usually meet the reasonable expectations of teachers and parents who expect the best from children and believe in their ability to achieve.

Given below are some of the general characteristics that are desirable in persons who work with children:

Physical Characteristics. For the protection of the children, most states require that the teacher have a physical examination and be free from tuberculosis and venereal disease. Working with young children, in any case, makes constant demands on physical as well as mental energies. Thus good health and a certain amount of physical stamina are definite essentials. Since adults may be exposed to a variety of childhood diseases and colds, good resistance to infections is also important. So, too, are nimbleness and agility that

allow an adult to assist the child on his level and to move quickly when occasions demand. Ideally the adult moves quietly and speaks softly. Children—particularly very young children—respond to a pleasing voice, whereas a harsh, strident voice tires the child. At the same time, the teacher must be able to express authority and conviction. The syrupy or talking-down voice that some adults adopt when they speak to children is certainly to be avoided.

Emotional Characteristics. To inspire confidence in children, the adults who work with them must be reasonably well-adjusted and fulfilled in their own rights. On the negative side, they cannot be rigid in their ways, moody, impatient, or unresponsive. Nor should they derive so much emotional satisfaction from the dependency of children that they hinder the child's growth toward independence. Above all, persons who work with young children should possess a sense of humor and be sensitive to each child—the unhappy child, the overly tired child, the aggressive child.

The Child Development Associates (CDA) program has proposed a list of competencies, developed by Barbara Biber of Bank Street College. Persons who are recognized as CDA's must have knowledge and skills to:

- set up and maintain a safe and healthy learning environment
- advance physical and intellectual competence in children
- build a positive self-concept and individual strength in children
- organize and sustain the positive group functioning of children and adults in a learning environment
- bring about optimal coordination of home and center child-rearing practices and expectations
- carry out supplementary responsibilities related to children's programs.

Other qualities and capacities essential for recognition as a CDA are the ability to:

- listen to children and understand what they are trying to convey
- use nonverbal forms and adapt adult language and style to the child's understanding but at the same time do not talk down to the child
- perceive individual differences and make positive use of them within the child group
- exercise control without threatening
- show pleasure in the successes of children and be sympathetic toward their troubles and failures without encouraging self-pity
- promote orderliness without sacrificing spontaneity and childlike exuberance
- bring humor and imaginativeness into group situations.

Perhaps the two indispensable requirements are:

- a sensitivity to the feelings of children and the quality of young thinking, and
- a commitment to help both the child and his family maximize their strengths and potentials.

Experience and Educational Background. At present, many states do not have specific requirements for education and experience for persons working with children. It is desirable, however, that teachers possess a good background knowledge of natural and physical sciences plus some knowledge of children's art, music, and literature. Children ask many questions and deserve correct answers. But even beyond providing information to the curious child, the good teacher stimulates the child's thinking and challenges his problem-solving abilities through searching questions and appropriate materials.

The teacher's background should include courses in curriculum and materials for the preschool child and experience with children of the age to be taught. Many teachers with experience in teaching school-age children tend to present a watered-down academic program that does not suit the needs of the preschool child.

It is important, too, that the teacher continue to grow professionally through reading professional books and journals, by attending professional conferences and workshops, and by taking courses. Love for children without knowledge is not enough.

Philosophy. The teacher's philosophy—what she or he believes about early childhood development—is the key to the entire program. The good teacher does not push children to get them ready for school or attempt to solve discipline problems by attacking the child directly, but rather studies each child to determine his needs, treats him with dignity and respect, and allows him to grow at his own pace. Helping each child develop positive feelings about himself is one of the most important tasks. The problem child is often a problem because the program does not satisfy his needs.

In addition to working well with children, the teacher must be able to work with a variety of adults: aides, volunteers, parents, other staff members, and community persons. Some teachers work successfully with children but fail in their relationships with adults.

Male Teachers

Until recently, children, during their early years, were exposed almost entirely to a feminine world, at home and at school. Increasingly now, educators are recognizing the role of the male teacher for young children. During the period when children strive to define their own roles, they need experience in relating to adults of both sexes.

Many children come from one-parent homes, the one parent being the mother. Even when both parents are in the home the father may spend little time with the young children. Child development specialists have long been concerned about the lack of a masculine role model for young boys. More recently, they have become aware that a male-absent environment also affects the development of girls.

In a review of the effect of father-absence on young children, Hetherington and Duer* concluded that such effects are greatest when the absence takes place before five years of age and that the effects are especially detrimental for boys. It was found that preschool boys from father-absent homes were less masculine, more dependent, did less well intellectually, and had more emotional problems. Other studies have shown that girls from homes without fathers were more anxious, were lower achievers, and were either very timid around males or more demanding of them than girls who were accustomed to daily living with father in the home.

When men serve as teachers, aides, or volunteers, a special dimension is added to the program. Children respond especially well to men, and men have usually found a new satisfaction in interacting with young children. Men frequently have a less cautious approach to everyday life, which fits the style of many young children.

Men are usually involved with the child's play. They help with woodworking and building activities. They help repair and move equipment. They give children piggyback rides and play ball and tag. In fact, men may occasionally provide an overstimulating environment. However, no generalizations based on sex are possible, and the positive factors associated with male teachers far outweigh any other considerations.

What inducements will interest men in the program? Many young men have worked as volunteers in programs and found the work so satisfying that they decided to begin a career in this area. The new teenage programs designed to provide both boys and girls with experience in child care centers have a dual purpose: to give young people "parenting" skills and to develop competencies for child care workers.

Paraprofessionals

Today, more and more child care services are employing paraprofessionals. Their training frequently involves home economists in preparing these persons in high schools, vocational schools, and junior colleges or through workshops or preservice or in-service programs.

Usually paraprofessionals come from the "indigenous community," that is, the group being served. Among the reasons for using paraprofessionals in human services are the personnel shortages and high costs in these fields; the unemployment rate among the poor and their need for on-the-job training; the communication gap that sometimes exists between the middle-class professional staff and the group being served and the consequent need for members from the community to interpret the programs.

The use of paraprofessionals—paid aides or volunteers—in services to children can increase the ratio of adults to children and provide the necessary "mothering" that may be lacking in centers that cannot afford more than the very minimum of staff. Such use of paraprofessionals offers opportunity to adults, young and old, to become involved in service projects.

A word of caution, however: Professional staff should regard the paraprofessional as an aide to the children rather than an aide to the teacher. Volunteers, especially, lose interest fast if their tasks comprise mainly preparation and clean-up to free the teacher from these routine chores.

Training and Paraprofessionals. A number

*Hetherington, E.M., and Duer, J.L., "The Effects of Father Absence on Child Development." *Young Children*, 26, 1971, pp. 233-248.

of courses have been designed for teaching paraprofessionals about the developmental characteristics and needs of children, methods of guidance, and curriculum materials. However, the most effective training method is actual experience with children. The person should have some preliminary course work and on-going training with constant feedback and evaluation.

Too often teachers are not adequately prepared for the dual job of teaching young children and of working with individuals of various ages and backgrounds. It is not enough to know methods and materials. A great deal of understanding and empathy with other adults is also required. Being patient with a child who acts his age is easier than being patient with an adult who acts like a child. Training paraprofessionals usually proves to be a growing experience for both the teacher and the aide.

Volunteers

Like the paid aide, volunteers must be screened not only for their abilities but also for their motivation in desiring to work with young children. Does the volunteer wish to help the children or primarily to satisfy her psychological needs? Does she hold beliefs about ways to deal with a young child's behavior that differ from those of the center?

Teenagers frequently make excellent aides. They relate well to children and the children to them. They possess the energy to keep up with active children. The insights into child behavior that teenagers acquire can be helpful to them—and to the community—when they become parents.

Older persons offer a source of volunteers frequently overlooked. With the mobility of families today, many children miss contact with grandparents. Older persons can furnish the comforting lap, the slower pace, and the understanding the young child needs. Frequently, a grandparent has a special skill or a fund of stories to share. Besides contributing to the children, older persons gain new satisfactions and sense of purpose in their lives.

Large centers may need a chairman of volunteers to coordinate the training and service of volunteers. If the chairman is selected from the community, she or he can help to find substitutes when regularly scheduled volunteers cannot serve.

Parent Participants

In cooperative preschool programs a parent usually serves on a regular basis for one day a month. A mother may generally assist the teacher in the room or help in a particular activity. A father may build or repair equipment or perform some other special service. In Head Start programs, mothers or fathers frequently come to the center on a regularly scheduled basis. These visits not only contribute to the program offered the children, but provide parent education as well.

In general, it is not advisable for a parent to serve as a full-time teacher or aide in a program in which his own child participates. Young children find it difficult to share the parent with other children. Thus a child may behave differently when the parent is present. Some children attempt to hold the parent's attention by clinging; others, by showing off.

For further information on staffing the child care center, see titles marked with the superscript 8 listed under **Bibliography,** pages 58 to 62.

9

WORKING WITH PARENTS

In a keynote speech at the White House Conference on Children (Washington, 1970) Urie Bronfenbrenner, professor of human development, Cornell University, stated:

> American families and their children are in trouble, trouble so deep and pervasive as to threaten the future of our nation. The source of the trouble is nothing less than national neglect of children and those primarily engaged in their care—America's parents.

It is imperative to find ways of helping parents through parent education programs, formal or informal, and through support of and leadership in all programs strengthening home and family life. The needs of children cannot be separated from the needs of the family. Programs to promote the optimum development of the child cannot succeed without regard for the total family of which he is a part. Indeed, research on intervention programs such as Head Start revealed that without parental involvement in the program, measured gains in functioning of children were not maintained. When there was parental involvement, gains spilled over to younger siblings in the family.

To improve the lot of children and to break the poverty cycle, programs geared to parents must have a broad range—from parent education classes to prepare adolescents for a future parental role to parent training at all levels.

Recent findings that cognitive or learning style is quite well established in the early months have led to a growth in infant-stimulation programs. Thus, programs with home visitors who go into the home to demonstrate ways of helping babies learn and centers where parents and children can come together have been started. There are many new books on infant stimulation and baby play. What mothers were expected to do instinctively now has to be taught to many young mothers.

Improving Well-Being of the Family

Day care and child development programs should be a means of improving the well-being of the total family. Centers that received funds under federal programs are specifically required to involve parents at both the policy-making and program levels. Such participation can usually be extended to several levels to suit the needs and abilities of the parents.

In some federal programs such as Head Start and Parent-Child Centers, parents for the first time had an opportunity to take part in decisions that affect the education of their children. The action resulted in the formation of pressure groups for community control and for programs that were more closely geared to the values and life of ethnic and minority groups. In some cases, those who view parent participation as an expansion of educational opportunity for the child have clashed with those who promote ethnic pride and self-determination.

Involving Parents

As the child first moves out of the home, a close relationship between the care-giver and the parent becomes especially important. Such a

relationship may be fostered by various means: home visits, visits by the child and parent to the home or center where the child will receive care, newsletters, notes, telephone calls, bulletin boards, and parent meetings. It is impractical to expect all parents to participate in the same ways. Sometimes the family may even be represented by a grandparent, an older sibling, or other member of the family.

In addition to serving on policy or advisory boards, parents may take active part in several ways: make, collect, or repair equipment; bake bread or cookies; sing or play a musical instrument; bring a pet or object of interest; or help plan a meeting.

Involving parents benefits them and the center through what the parents learn about children and their needs and what parents contribute in time, interest, and support. What parents learn and what they have to offer may differ because of varied feelings, abilities, and beliefs about child-rearing. Some parents are "authoritarian" and believe children need strict discipline. Other parents may be overly permissive or inconsistent, lenient sometimes and strict at other times. Many parents are confused and change their opinions about the kinds of programs the care-giver should provide and the kinds of discipline the children should receive.

Parents also differ in their feelings about having children. Some parents really enjoy their children and want to help them toward optimum development. Others are uncomfortable in the parental role and are satisfied to hand over the responsibility for the child's day care.

Parents vary, too, in their time and ability to help children. Because of health, living conditions, family or personal problems, some parents may not be able to contribute much to any program. Others may be interested but may have little time or energy for anything beyond the task of supplying basic necessities. Ways to involve parents include the following:

Home Visits. A home visit can help the teacher understand the child's background, the family interests, and family orientation and thus allow for better communication with him.

The visitor should be a good listener. The parent who knows and understands his own child has much to share with the visitor. Often the parent needs reassurance that he is doing a good job. Of course, he may not be, in which case the visitor must be careful not to lessen the parent's self-esteem and thereby lessen his ability to grow as a parent. An empathetic understanding that parenting "isn't an easy job even under the best of circumstances" is less likely to put the parent on the defensive. The visitor should be wary of offering unsolicited advice or of giving pat solutions because they have worked for others.

Notes and Letters. Short personal notes sent home with the child can inform the parents about a pleasant incident in the child's day or about an event at the center. Some centers issue a regular newsletter about the various programs, field trips, concepts the children have been learning, and books or stories the children especially enjoy. Weekly menus are frequently sent home. Many mothers come to a better understanding of good nutrition and meal planning in this way.

Bulletin Boards. A bulletin board for parents may be located in an area where parents bring and call for their children. It may contain the menus, plans for the week, health and safety tips, and ideas to try at home.

Toy- and Book-Lending Libraries. Some centers have a supply of "learning toys" or games that may be checked out. Often, parents may borrow children's books or books on child-rearing. These activities help promote times that the parent shares with the child.

Conferences and Reports. Individual conferences with the parent are essential. The parent should hear about the strengths and achievements of his child, as well as about those areas in which he needs help. Sometimes many short conversations are more effective than one final conference.

An experienced teacher does not offer advice or pass judgment. She knows there is no one right answer but only potential solutions. She may suggest possible reasons for a child's behavior and relate courses of action that have worked with other children. But she should be especially careful not to put the parent on the defensive or to be defensive herself.

Here are some guidelines for the care-giver:

- In a conference, be friendly and relaxed and sit somewhere near the parent, away from a desk.
- Encourage parent to do the talking.
- Find out how both parents feel about the child and what they want for him.

- Help build their self-confidence in their role as the child's most important teachers.
- Do not discuss the child in his presence.
- Avoid comparisons with other children.

In general, discussion of other children in the center should be left out of the conversation unless the child has an especial friend in the group or antipathy for another that results in difficult interaction.

Parent Meetings. Meetings may be held for the entire group in a center or for a few parents in the neighborhood at times chosen by them. There is nothing sacred about evening meetings. Centers have experimented with various times such as a Saturday morning special for fathers, a Sunday afternoon open house, a supper meeting for all the family, or a snack period to which those family members who can come are invited. One center invites a different mother to eat lunch with the children each day.

Through meetings, parents may become acquainted with the goals of the program, communicate their desires for the kinds of programs they wish for their children, and hear of their child's experiences. Parents should feel they have some power over the events that influence their lives and the lives of their family. If the goals of the care-giver and the parents are too far apart, reeducation may be necessary for each.

Parents should help plan the meetings. Ideally, the meeting should not merely present the opinions of an expert but should afford an opportunity for actual parent involvement. Occasionally a film or skit can be used as a basis for discussion of a common problem. Even a chance to experience the child's day by participating in a child's activities can be fun. Parents may actually enjoy finger painting or listening to a flannelboard story!

Parent Discussion Groups. Ongoing discussion groups, held over several weeks, are more effective than a single session. If child care is furnished at the same time, more parents may be able to attend than would otherwise be possible. The leader of such a group should be skilled in group methods but need not pose as an expert. Parents gain a great deal from learning that other parents have similar problems. A more experienced member of the group will often provide a solution that worked for him. If advice is sought, the leader may present possible alternatives or may suggest books for the group to study. Parents should be helped to find their own solutions and to make their own decisions, rather than to depend on a specialist in the field.

For further information on working with parents, see titles marked with the superscript 9 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

10

GUIDANCE OF THE YOUNG CHILD

The term, discipline, has varying connotations. To some, the word is synonymous with punishment and suggests a strict way of life with regulation and control. In truth, however, the goal of good discipline should be *self*-control rather than control by some outside force or agent.

To avoid confusion, the word *guidance* will be used here. Guidance is more forward-looking than punishment. Punishment is after the fact, what we do *to* a child. Guidance is what we do with and for a child to help him on the road toward self-control.

There are two kinds of guidance: direct and indirect. Indirect guidance refers to the type of environment we provide. It should be one that is orderly and appropriate, one of warm acceptance, one in which the child knows what is expected of him, one in which the adult understands himself, one in which the adult helps a child discover his feelings about himself and others.

Direct guidance includes the things we say and do to help a child learn how to live happily with others. Thus, guidance of this sort may be physical—touching, restraining, leading—or it may be verbal.

General Rules for Guidance

- Know what is characteristic behavior for each age. A child who appears to be stubborn or contrary may be only "acting his age."
- Keep rules simple in the beginning. Restrict only those activities that might be harmful to the child or to another or that might needlessly destroy property.
- When limits are necessary, let the child know what they are and try to be consistent in enforcing them.
- When possible, give reasons so that the child will learn cause-and-effect relationships.
- Avoid comparisons with competition among children. A child's chances for approval should not depend on being "first" or "best" or "better than someone else."
- Give the child only as much assistance as he needs but be ready to help before he becomes discouraged or frustrated.
- Offer choices when possible. The child gains confidence from making decisions. However, the choices must be realistic and the decision must be one you can accept.
- Do not offer a choice if the child has no choice. Not, "Do you want to go to bed now?" but, "Time for bed."
- Give positive directions. Tell a child what he can do rather than what he can not do.
- Accept a child's feelings but provide an appropriate release for bad feelings. Try to persuade children to verbalize feelings rather than to display physical aggression.
- Avoid using threats or physical punishment when possible.
- When viewing a child's creative efforts, remember that the *process* rather than the *product* is important to most children.

Verbal Guidance

Words intended to guide children can be help-

ful or confusing, according to the choice of phrases. Many children develop a protective deafness against too many adult directions. In talking to a child, be sure you have his attention. Instead of calling to him across the room, go to him and get down on his level. Use clear, short, and meaningful phrases that are expectant and encouraging. Directions should be positive in form and specific. Following are some phrases that are appropriate for an adult to use with children:

Say:	Instead of:
"You may hold your glass."	"Aren't you going to drink your water?"
"You need to turn off the faucet."	"Don't turn on so much water."
"Ride on the sidewalk."	"Don't ride into the street."
"Hold the pitcher steady and walk slowly."	"Be careful. You are going to spill the water."
"You are ready to lie still and rest."	"Aren't you ever going to lie still and be quiet?"

The Child With Special Needs

The term "exceptional child" is often used to describe the child whose intellectual, physical, or social abilities are above or below average. The child may be mentally retarded, physically handicapped, or emotionally disturbed. He may have visual or hearing impairment, brain damage, or any combination of these. A more recently identified type of special child is the child who has a developmental lag due to lack of environmental stimulation. The gifted child often is included in the exceptional category but will not be dealt with in this section.

Within any group of young children at least one child may have special needs. He may not differ to the extent that more profoundly impaired children do, but he may, nevertheless, need special consideration or handling.

Although earlier practice was to have special programs for exceptional or limited children, current procedures call for integrating these children into a regular center unless the child is profoundly limited or non-ambulatory.

As more has become known about the importance of early learning and the need for an enriched environment for normal children, it becomes apparent that such an environment is even more crucial for impaired children. They need sensory and language experiences at an early age if they are to make the best possible use of their limited abilities. Social interaction at this time is even more critical for an impaired child than for the child who has the possibility of seeking a favorable environment for himself.

Recent legislation has provided funds for comprehensive services for exceptional children. The objective of the legislation is to help each child develop to his highest potential. New programs are being designed to provide an optimum environment for the child and to give guidance and support to his parents. The trend is away from institutionalization of the handicapped child and toward retaining him at home by providing for supplementary care and services in the community.

Before a special child is accepted into any program, he should have appropriate psychological, neurological, and medical evaluations. The child should be able to follow directions and to function fairly independently within the situation. It is also necessary to have adequate help available. Many physically limited children require a one-to-one adult relationship for most activities.

What kinds of children may be included in a child care program with normal children? Some children with cerebral palsy, Down's syndrome, epilepsy, orthopedic handicaps, hearing or visual impairments, or mental retardation, or those with less severe emotional problems may benefit from interaction with normal children.

Recent research has shown that the largest percentage of exceptional children are the mentally retarded. An individual may be retarded because of biological factors—conditions before, during, or after birth—or because of poor environmental conditions.

Cerebral palsy is an impairment of motor ability and functioning because of injury at the time of birth or later. Persons with cerebral palsy may, or may not, be retarded. Since speech is a motor activity, speech articulation may be a problem. Cerebral palsy often causes problems in locomotion and coordination, too.

Down's Syndrome is the preferred name for the defect formerly labeled "mongolism." The defect is a genetic fault in which the individual has 47 rather than the usual 46 chromosomes. Children with Down's Syndrome may have a heart defect and be subject to colds and respiratory infections. For this reason, protection of these children from potential health hazards may call for great care.

Down's Syndrome children are slow in motor development and low in mental functioning. However, they, like other impaired children, can benefit from interaction with normally functioning children.

If a child has brain damage or injury to any of the sensory processing equipment he will have learning difficulties. Information from the outside world must be carried to the brain and processed there. If any one of the sensory organs is impaired, extra stimulation and opportunity for compensatory experiences must be provided. Adequate data must be available to stimulate the developing organism. Since later learning depends upon the foundation, the earlier the extra stimulation begins, the better. Special education cannot wait until the child is six.

To work successfully with children of limited abilities often calls for a particular type of preparation even though the special child has the same basic needs as those of any child: need for love and affection, a feeling of self-worth, an opportunity to grow and develop to his highest potential.

Since progress is often slow, those who care for special children must show a great deal of patience. They must know when to give assistance and when to let the child do for himself. The care-giver should never add to the child's handicap by being over-protective or by failing to set necessary limits.

Usually a retarded child thrives best in a structured environment. Too many choices confuse him, and he has difficulty making decisions. For him to learn even routine tasks, he must repeat his attempts over and over.

Children with handicaps need special training in motor and perceptual skills. Walking on balance beams or boards, crawling through a maze of tires, and catching a beanbag or ball are all activities that help develop motor skills. Sorting or matching objects by sight, feel, or sound; building with unit blocks; or developing one sensory perception when another is limited aid the total perceptual development.

Handicapped children have interests similar to those of normal children. The handicapped child with communication difficulties must find substitutes for verbal release of emotions and tensions. Creative activities may provide such an outlet and at the same time give the child a feeling of accomplishment. Many impaired children—especially retardates—respond positively to music. They may join in rhythmic activities or learn new words more easily by singing them. The visually impaired child may compensate for his loss with a heightened sensitivity to sound. Even the child with hearing difficulty may increase his awareness by responding to the sound vibrations of musical instruments.

The inclusion of special children in a regular program demands thoughtful staff planning, but the benefits are many. The special child benefits from interacting with other children and observing what they do. At an early age, normal children learn understanding and acceptance of individual differences. Adults learn to appreciate each child for what he is, not for what he can do and to recognize the gifts all children bring to this world.

For further information on guidance of the young child, see titles marked with the superscript 10 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

11

HEALTH AND SAFETY

Entry Requirements

Licensing regulations in most states require that children—like the adults—be given a physical examination prior to entry into the program. Many physicians, however, believe a statement from the child's regular doctor that a program will not be detrimental to a child's health is sufficient.

There should be a medical history on file concerning the prenatal, birth, and early health aspects relative to each child. The data should include evidence of immunizations as a protection against epidemic diseases. If the family does not have a private physician, such immunizations are available free of charge through local health departments.

All adults, including volunteers, cooks, and custodians, should be screened for tuberculosis. Some states require complete health examinations for all employees. If the adult is under the regular care of a physician, a statement as to his physical fitness for the job may be all that is necessary. Sometimes a careful interview and supervision are effective. However, a preemployment physical examination is a good protective measure for the employer as well as for the employee.

Although mental health is more difficult than physical health, to ascertain, both are of equal importance in the consideration of adults to work with young children. No adult who has been arraigned for or convicted of any offense against children, either physical or sexual, should be employed to give care to children.

Exclusion or Isolation of Ill Children

Some definite policy needs to be clearly delineated about the child who has a cold or moderate illness. The center should set aside an isolation area for the child who may become ill during the day even though the others in a group might have already been exposed by the time symptoms of an infectious illness appear. Children are bound to be exposed to colds when they enter any new group situation, but they will also begin to develop a certain degree of resistance. If the mother of a sick child works and depends on child care, it is often better to let the child remain in a familiar setting than to set rigid regulations about excluding him.

The staff should include at least one person who is experienced in detecting and evaluating symptoms. Many child care programs provide for a morning inspection by the teacher or child care-giver who can readily detect a skin rash or any unusual redness in the throat. Rather than a health diagnosis, this entrance observation may be considered as a check-in time with the child and the parent who is usually the best source of information if the child is unwell.

Emergency Care

Every child care program should provide for emergency care of children in case of accidents, injuries, or severe illnesses with high fever that

require immediate medical attention without time to notify parents or secure their permission. Because emergencies do occur, even in the most carefully ordered programs, every facility should post an emergency list beside the telephone, including the name, address, and telephone number of a physician or clinic to be called. In addition, the parent should leave on file at the center written permission for emergency care of the child when the parent cannot be reached. With a minimum of two adults assigned to each group, one is always available to stay with children when an individual child needs emergency care or attention.

Those who establish policy for a child care center should develop a plan for handling emergencies and insist on such practice as part of any child care program. Whether or not the state law requires regular fire drills, for example, they should be included in the emergency plan. The center should possess a well-equipped first-aid kit and fire extinguisher, and the staff should know how to use them. The plan should further outline evacuation arrangements in case of fire or, in some sections of the country, tornado. In coastal areas subject to hurricanes, how to proceed in the event of hurricane warnings should also be a part of the emergency instructions.

Safety Measures

Since accidents represent the major hazard of preschool children, adults must provide as safe an environment as possible. The building and grounds of any facility intended to serve children must meet local or state requirements for safety and sanitation. Some states require that a child care facility be confined to ground floor space only, or, if second floor facilities are used, they must have two stairway exits.

Safety precautions for buildings include a safe and effective heating system, with guards for wall heaters, registers, or floor furnaces. Electrical cords must be kept out of reach of young children, and electrical outlets that are within their reach must be covered with safety plates.

Windows and doors should be screened and windows should have guards, if necessary for the protection of young children. Stairways or porches should be protected with gates. Floors should be smooth and free from cracks but not slippery.

All medicines, household poisons, matches, and dangerous tools or instruments should be kept locked or safely away from children.

Outdoor space should be fenced in, and the equipment should be free from splinters or sharp edges. The type of surface most suitable for a play yard is not always easily determined. Usually, a variety of surfaces is desirable. Grassy surfaces are more resilient, but often stay wet after a rain or heavy dew. Concrete surfaces are suitable for wheel toys but should not be used under swings or climbing apparatus or any other equipment from which a child might fall.

If swings are part of the play equipment, they should have canvas seats and should be located so children cannot run into them. Standard commercial teeter-totters and merry-go-rounds are inappropriate for preschool children. Low teeter-totters, scaled to the size of very small children, may be used under adult supervision.

Health Program

Any program that receives federal funds for child care calls for a comprehensive health-care plan. This includes medical, dental, and other health-related measures such as visual and auditory screening.

One screening measure developed for Head Start children, and frequently used for assessing a child's health status, is the Denver Developmental Screening Test. Nurses and teachers can be trained to give this test. In some states, public health nurses use it at prekindergarten meetings in the spring before a child enters school.

A skilled observer can make a good appraisal of each child's health status by noting his overall appearance, vitality, and general play behavior. The eyes, skin, hair, and mucous membranes reflect the child's nutritional well-being.

The status of the child's teeth should, of course, be noted. Some parents do not realize the importance of preserving the baby or deciduous teeth as position retainers for permanent teeth.

Health forms may be part of a child's permanent record. Many centers or health departments have prescribed forms available.

Sanitary Measures

Habits of personal hygiene and good health practices can be taught by example and by direct

instruction. Insistence on hand washing, covering the mouth and nose for coughs and sneezes, and using towels can be part of the health program.

Children can learn about the care of food through measures to keep food clean and protected. They can learn to eat with their own utensils and not from serving dishes or serving spoons. They can learn about environmental sanitation as they deposit trash in waste baskets and trash containers and help keep the premises tidy.

Nutrition

Good nutrition contributes to the well-being of any individual but is especially crucial during the early growing years.

Many babies triple their birth weight during the first year and continue to grow at a relatively rapid pace during the second year. However, from ages two to five the growth rate slows down and appetite diminishes. For a time the child may want less milk and, in fact, less of all foods. Since the food served to the young child is relatively small in quantity, it must meet nutritional requirements.

The young child needs food for body-building and renewal, for energy, and for resistance to infection. During this period of muscular and skeletal growth, the essentials include body-building nutrients of protein, calcium, minerals, and vitamins. Concentrated sweets provide calories but nothing more.

Severe malnutrition may not be prevalent in the United States but lesser forms of undernutrition are frequent. Whether undernutrition in humans is severe enough to affect the learning ability permanently has not been proved conclusively. However, there is certain evidence that poor nutrition may prevent the child from reaching his genetic potentials.

The poorly nourished child is subject to colds and infections, which reduce opportunities for him to interact with his environment during an important developmental period. Poor nutrition may also cause the child to be easily distracted and may decrease his motivation. Among the children in Head Start programs, the most prevalent nutritional deficiency consequences were found to be anemia and dental caries.

For those concerned with the feeding of children, the basic four food groups offer a simple guide to sound nutrition. These include: (1) the milk group (evaporated, skim, dry, and fluid whole milks, buttermilk, cheese, and ice cream); (2) the meat group (meat, fish, eggs, poultry, and alternates of dry beans, dry peas, lentils, nuts, and peanut butter); (3) the vegetable-fruit group; and (4) the bread-cereal group.

Limited amounts of fats and sugars in the preparation of foods add flavor and provide food energy but should constitute only a minor part of the young child's diet. A child who has a nutritionally balanced diet is less likely to crave sweets to the extent that children with poor diets do.

In addition to aiding physical and mental development, nutritional foods in the early years can be an educational and social experience for the child.

Food Needs

The kind of feeding pattern that a child care program provides depends on several factors: the time of day and number of hours a child is in a program; the facilities available for food preparation, storage, and serving; and the amounts and kinds of foods available in the child's home. Children in a 2- to 2½-hour program need a snack as well as a lunch which provides one-third of the daily nutritional allowances. Some children will need breakfast, also.

Snacks

Many children eat small quantities of food at mealtime and therefore need between-meal snacks to satisfy hunger and supply quick energy. Snacks given at least 1½ hours before the meal help to round out the daily food requirement and do not spoil the child's appetite for meals. Snacks of fruit juice or raw fruits and vegetables that require thorough chewing help to stimulate the appetite.

Frequently, adults fail to offer variation in snacks, serving juice and crackers, or milk and graham crackers. Even snack period can extend the child's food likes and knowledge. If there is an oven, hot plate, or electric skillet available, the possibilities for variety are almost unlimited. Even without cooking facilities, many variations are possible.

Suggestions for Snacks

Celery sticks filled with peanut butter or cheese

DAILY FOOD GUIDE

Food	Approximate daily requirement	Average size of serving for each age		
		1 year	2 to 3 years	4 and 5
Milk, plain or in foods	3 to 4 c	½ to 1 c	½ to 1 c	1 c
Eggs	1	1	1	1
Meat, poultry, fish, cheese	1 to 4 T	1 T	2 to 3 T	4 T
Potatoes, white or sweet	1 serving	2 T	3 T	4 T
Other cooked vegetables (mostly green or yellow)	1 to 2 servings	2 T	3 T	3 or 4 T
Raw vegetables	1 serving	small portion, such as ¼ carrot		
Fruit for vitamin C	1 medium orange, ⅓ c citrus, or ⅔ c tomato juice			
Other fruit	1 serving	¼ c	¼ to ½ c	½ c
Bread, enriched or whole-grain	1½ to 3 slices	½ to 1 slice	1 slice	1 to 1½ slices
Cereal	1 serving	¼ c	⅓ c	½ c
Butter or margarine	(spread on bread and used as seasoning)			
Vitamin D, in milk, or concentrate	400 units	400 units	400 units	400 units

Cheese and meat cubes
Dry cereals
Fresh fruit: apples, orange slices, tangerines, pineapple, green grapes, cantaloupe, strawberries, cherry tomatoes
Dried fruits: raisins, peaches, prunes, figs, dates
Canned fruits: fruit cocktail, peaches, pears, apricots
Crackers spread with cheese, peanut butter, tuna, or fresh butter
Drinks: fruit juices, lemonade, orangeade, hot fruit-flavored gelatin, milk shakes, fruit juice floats

Suggestions for Cooking Experiences

Pancakes
Popcorn
Eggs: deviled, scrambled, hard-boiled
Meat: meat balls, bacon
Toast: French toast, toast sprinkled with coconut, brown sugar, or cinnamon and white sugar
Pizza
Quick breads: muffins, biscuits
Cookies: baked or no-bake kind
Apple sauce
Fruit-flavored gelatin: plain, whipped, or made with fruit or marshmallows
Instant puddings in varied flavors: plain or with added chocolate bits, raisins, etc.
Butter: made in an old-fashioned churn

Meals

A substantial lunch should be provided because for many children this may be the main meal of the day. All meals served at the center should be planned with the children in mind and should have variety in color, shapes, flavors, and textures.

Here is a typical menu based on the basic four food groups—meat, vegetable-fruit, bread, and milk:

Ground beef pattie	1 small
Green beans	1 to 2 tablespoons
Raw carrot	2 to 4 strips
Whole wheat bread or toast	½ to 1 slice
with butter	½ to 1 teaspoon
vanilla pudding	¼ to ½ cup
with banana slices	¼ banana
Milk	½ to 1 cup

Parties and Special Occasions

In our culture, as in many others, special occasions mean special foods. Birthdays at the child care center should be celebrated with a child's favorite, if possible. In anticipation of national holidays, cupcakes or cookies and ice cream may be served. Heart-shaped cookies and red gelatin for Valentine's Day, basket cupcakes

at Easter time, pumpkin custard at Halloween—these give children pleasant ways to remember the special days in their lives.

Food Preparation Activities for Children

Experiences in food preparation extend the children's knowledge, help in motor coordination, provide social experiences, and usually encourage children to be adventuresome in trying new foods. The preparation of food also provides a homelike activity some children may miss. There are many ways in which children can take part, for example:

Cutting apples, celery, bread
Peeling potatoes or scraping carrots with a vegetable peeler or peeling shells from hard-cooked eggs
Shelling peas or shucking corn
Tearing lettuce or other greens
Grinding (with hand grinder) meat, cheese, peanuts, raisins
Beating egg whites, gelatin, cream
Shaking milk and ice cream for milk shakes
Sprinkling decorations on cookies or cinnamon and sugar on toast
Rolling cooky, biscuit, or bread dough
Squeezing lemons or oranges for juice
Spreading cheese or peanut butter on celery, spreading butter or frosting on crackers or cookies
Molding meat balls or forming dough for cookies

Ways to Inform the Family

A nutritional education program can inform the entire family. Following are some suggested ways:

- Post copies of the weekly menu on the bulletin board and send copies home with the child. In this way, meals at the center may supplement rather than duplicate those served elsewhere.
- Include facts about nutritional needs and low-cost menus in the education content of parent meetings.
- If possible, arrange for a film-showing and discussion to help parents understand the importance of the total environment and the child's growth pattern in relation to his eating habits.
- Invite parents to help prepare and serve foods at the center. This type of involvement is especially important if the family comes from a different ethnic background than the majority of the group. Special dishes may thus be shared.
- Invite family members to help prepare ground and plant a garden.
- Invite family members on field trips related to foods and the way they are grown and marketed.
- With the assistance of various families, arrange for a series of special meals to represent different cultures.

Food Likes and Dislikes

What influences the eating habits of a child? The likes and dislikes of his parents and other family members can affect his food preferences. His cultural, social, and economic background; the foods most readily available in his community; and advertising—especially on television—may also determine his food choices. The way a child feels about himself and his world is very likely to show up in his attitude toward foods. Some children cling to the familiar and are afraid to try anything new. Many children go on food jags, wanting only certain foods for a period of time.

Then, too, a child's appetite may vary from day to day and is usually a good indicator of the amount of food he needs. The child who refuses to eat may not be feeling well, may not be hungry, or may be overly tired. By refusing to eat, a child may be trying to get attention, or may be merely asserting his independence. The desire for independence and self-direction at this age is a sign of healthy personality growth and should be respected. Usually a healthy child who has plenty of outdoor exercise is ready to eat.

At no time should emotional factors assume too great a role in the eating situation. The child should find satisfaction in other areas so that he does not gain attention from refusal to eat or does not satisfy emotional hunger by over-indulgence in food. His general attitude toward food is more important than occasional resistance to eating or his individual food prejudices which may be only temporary if they are not reinforced by adult insistance that the child eat foods he does not want. Usually nutritionally adequate substitutions can be given.

In planning meals and snacks, the meal-planner should know the customs and eating habits of the families from which the children

come. At mealtime, servings should be kept small and the children allowed to ask for second helpings. New foods are best introduced one kind at a time, in small servings, and the children should be encouraged to take at least a taste. Many children are surprised to find that they do like a food that had not appealed to them on sight. If a child resists, the teacher should wait and try again later. Sometimes the example of other children will induce a child to eat. Unless adults have allergies or dietary problems, they should taste all foods served. Adults, too, may enlarge their food likes.

Environmental Factors

The total environment is as important as the food in establishing good eating habits and attitudes. The proper physical environment helps the child gain independence in the eating situation, and the emotional atmosphere affects his appetite and digestion.

Suitably sized tables and chairs—those that allow the child's feet to rest on the floor—help him relax. Small plates, glasses, and eating utensils are more easily handled than are those of adult size. A meal served family style provides a new experience for many children from low-income families. It also allows for individual preferences in size of servings.

How the food looks, tastes, and feels in the mouth is important to children. Foods that are colorful, not too strong in flavor, neither too hot nor too cold, not stringy or lumpy in consistency have more appeal for most young children although children from some cultures may be accustomed to more highly seasoned foods. Children usually prefer raw vegetables to cooked ones. Vegetables, fruits, and meats can often be served in bite-size portions to be eaten with the fingers. Foods such as desserts should not be withheld as punishment or until the child has eaten the rest of the meal. If the dessert is nutritionally sound, as it should be, it may be eaten at any time during the meal. Some psychiatrists believe many adults go on a food binge of rich desserts because the dessert was made the prize for eating other foods.

The emotional climate during meals can influence a child's attitude toward food. Eating should be associated with a relaxed, happy atmosphere—never with nagging, scolding, or punishment.

Meals or snack-time provide an excellent opportunity for conversation. The adult can help the child add to his vocabulary and extend his knowledge by discussing where foods are grown, their color, shape, texture, and other qualities.

Learning table manners is not too important at the preschool period. It is more important for the child to learn to eat a variety of foods and to establish a good attitude toward mealtime. Until a child has good eye-hand coordination, the process of feeding himself may be difficult. Some children learn this control earlier than others do. Frequent spills can be expected. A sponge nearby for use in wiping up makes these accidents less of a catastrophe.

A few children have difficulty sitting still long enough to finish a meal. A chance to move around by taking used dishes to the kitchen or going after foods may help.

The Child Who Is Ill

Sometimes a child may not feel like eating. He may have an upset stomach, a sore throat, or the beginning of a cold. In this case, he should not be encouraged to eat although he may take a liquid diet of clear broth, fruit juice, or gingerale. If lack of appetite indicates potentially serious symptoms, a doctor should be consulted.

Sanitary Standards

Sanitary standards must be of the highest for all food service programs. Every food handler should have a physical examination. Children or adults with colds or any other illness should not be involved in food preparation. Hands should be washed thoroughly with soap and water before any one touches food or utensils.

Foods should be stored in tightly covered containers. Milk products and any foods made with milk, eggs, or mayonnaise should be refrigerated and used up promptly. All raw fruits and vegetables should be washed thoroughly before they are served.

Most state licensing standards require that dishes be washed in a dishwasher or with a three-pan operation by which the dishes are first washed in one container, then rinsed in another, and sterilized with hot water or a disinfectant in the third. Dishes are then air-dried.

Food Programs for Children

Most nonprofit programs serving children from low-income families can receive supplementary foods and assistance on kitchen equipment. The director of school food service in the office of your state department of education can supply information about programs to benefit children in your state.

The Special Food Service Program (SFSP), often called the *Vanik* Program, is a federal program designed to provide nutrition for children in centers, settlement houses, recreation programs, or other nonresidential institutions that serve children and young adults up to 21 years of age. Information about this program may be obtained from the Food Research and Action Center, 25 West 43rd Street, New York, NY 10036.

For further information on health and safety, see titles marked with the superscript 11 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

12

FINANCES AND BUSINESS MANAGEMENT

Planning a Budget

A budget is a financial plan based on an estimate of the money that can be expected to come in and the total amount of money that will be needed to operate the center.

The cost of equipping the facility and getting the project under way the first year is high. Therefore, no project should be started without extra funds. As a general rule, funds to operate for a minimum of six months should be available before the center opens. Sometimes centers can secure grants or seed money for the program. Church groups, civic organizations, and industry will often make contributions. Before a program is started, the possible expenses should be estimated; then accurate records of costs should be kept.

It is impossible to devise a special budget showing specific items for any one type of program because of variation in items included and because of differing costs in various locations. However, it is possible to compare costs of programs of equivalent quality.

The size of the facility, whether built, rented, or supplied free, will determine the size of the program since regulations specify the amount of inside and outside space per child. Usually minimum requirements call for 35 square feet of inside useable space per child and 75 square feet of outdoor space per child.

The budget for furnishings and equipment will vary, depending on whether items are purchased new or made by volunteers. One comparative list (in *Day Care*, by Evans, Shub, Weinstein) estimated that a room for 20 children cost nearly a third less to equip when many items were homemade or donated than it did when the same kinds of items were purchased new.

Budget Items

Certain standard items should be used to establish the annual budget. These are listed below according to category:

Salaries and Fringe Benefits. Salaries should be anticipated for any of the following personnel: director, regular and substitute teachers, aides, cook, maintenance or custodial help. Fringe benefits include social security and any special insurance or other benefit payments. As a rule of thumb, the standard used for figuring fringe benefits is 10 percent of salaries.

Equipment. This item includes all permanent equipment owned by the center. It is usually categorized as follows:

- Educational equipment: tables, chairs, shelves, blocks, books, records, etc.
- Office equipment: furniture and machines
- Household and kitchen equipment: including washer and dryer, vacuum cleaner, etc.
- Medical equipment: medicine cabinet, scales.

Expendable Supplies. These are items that must constantly be replaced, the exception being food which is usually a separate item. Categories under this heading include: art supplies (paper, paint, paste), housekeeping supplies (cleaning

products, mops, brooms, etc.), office supplies (paper, stamps, typewriter ribbons).

Food. As a budget item food should show the number of meals and/or snacks and the cost which is usually figured on a cost per day per child.

Utilities. Telephone, light, heat, and water costs comprise the utilities.

Rental or Use of Space. This item includes not only the monthly costs but also a fund set aside for replacement and repair of the facility.

Other Costs. Among the other costs are such items as fire and theft and liability insurance, license fees, bonding fees, professional dues, and publications.

Potential Sources of Funds

Governmental Funds. These may be local, state, or federal with the primary emphasis placed on serving low-income families. When federal funds are used, federal interagency standards must be met.

Revenue Sharing. Revenue sharing is a method of government funding that can be used for child care services if local communities can be persuaded to use funds for such purpose. Under revenue sharing, money is given back to the states and/or local units on a per capita basis with no strings attached. Thus the local unit can establish its own priorities. Supporters of child care may have to convince local officials of the need to give high priority to this service. Under special revenue sharing the federal government can specify certain uses for funds, but the local unit can dictate the kind and quality of services to be provided.

Community Support. Programs may receive funds from the Community Chest or United Funds and from solicited donations.

Fees. Proprietary centers are supported entirely by fees. Other centers use a fee schedule on a sliding scale based on the family's ability to pay. Fees vary a great deal, according to the location, the economic climate of the community, and the kind of program. Few working parents are able to pay the cost of full day care; consequently most centers are subsidized. The public child welfare department of a state may pay fees to a local licensed agency or home. Children are eligible for care if their parents are working or in training (Work Incentive Program), or if it is determined that the child can benefit from such placement. Any center or family child care home receiving payments for SRS paid care under Aid to Families with Dependent Children (AFDC) funds must meet federal interagency standards.

Federal Programs for Children. Following are some federal programs which might be possible sources of additional funds:

- Migrant Programs—to develop the full potential of migrants
- Model Cities—to assist certain approved communities
- School Lunch Programs, School Breakfast Program; Nonfood Assistance Program; Surplus Food Program—to supplement programs of the school districts only; other programs are not eligible
- Programs for Neglected and Delinquent Children—to develop special studies for neglected and delinquent children in institutions or public schools
- Comprehensive Health Services—to help children and youth of low-income families
- Vocational Education Amendments 1968, Part F, Consumer and Homemaking Education—to develop programs for the improvement of individual and family home environments and the quality of personal and family life
- Educational Programs Development Act (EPDA)—to train paraprofessionals
- Emergency Food and Medical Services—to supplement food and medical budgets
- Grants to Handicapped Children—to provide education for the handicapped
- Special Food Service Program (Vanik Bill)—to reimburse community-sponsored, day care programs (other than school programs) for food costs.

For further information on finances and business management, see titles marked with the superscript 12 listed under **Bibliography**, pages 58 to 62.

13

OF SPECIAL INTEREST TO HOME ECONOMICS TEACHERS

A Child Care Program in the High School

An increase in the number of cases of child abuse and neglect, especially among young parents, has caused educators to focus on preparation of the young—men and women—for the parental role. One program designed for career exploration is the McKnight program. Another new program—"Exploring Childhood"—is designed to give adolescents responsible roles in working with young children, to help the adolescent develop the skills to perform these roles, and to inculcate mature attitudes toward the care and welfare of the young. The curriculum centers on student observation and participation either in a laboratory within the school or other child care center within the community.

The program has been tested in many high schools throughout the country and will likely be launched in many more as home economics teachers become acquainted with the specifics and potentials.

Some General Guidelines

The first consideration in the contemplation of a child care program is space. Although a room especially designed for the purpose is generally preferable to other arrangements, most schools are obliged to adapt whatever facility is available either in the school building or elsewhere in the community. In some instances, a nearby church or community center may provide accommodations. A mobile unit adjacent to the school offers a further possibility.

Whatever the choice, it should be light, well-ventilated, and easily maintained; should contain washing facilities, and, if possible, a place where children can get drinking water without help from adults. Toilet facilities with a step arrangement should be easily accessible.

Once the decision has been made to pursue the possibility of a child care program as part of the home economics curriculum in the high school, the teacher and/or other planners should formulate objectives as a basis for the program. These may be set up under two headings:

Objectives for the Children. The program is intended to:

- aid in the development of a positive self-image
- encourage a thirst for knowledge
- provide opportunities for enhancing physical development
- encourage self-expression
- stimulate language development and experience
- encourage independent activity
- provide social experiences with children of the same age
- meet the needs of the child as an individual and in a group.

Objectives for the Teenagers. For this group the program is intended to:

- stimulate education in content areas which are applicable to a variety of child service careers as well as to parenthood
- offer practical experience with young children to

assist the adolescents in making realistic choices regarding careers in service to children
- provide training which will enable young people to pursue immediate careers by increasing their competencies in child service occupations open to teenagers
- provide opportunities for supervised work with young children in a non-threatening environment, thus contributing to better understanding of young children and to a better self-understanding
- encourage a spirit of child advocacy through the study of and experience with young children, thus helping young persons to appreciate the needs of children in modern society together with measures necessary to meet these needs.

Although ideally the objectives should dictate the extent of the program, realistically the reverse may sometimes be true. The above objectives were originally set up for a 12-week course with a nursery school in operation two hours in the morning, four days a week. Shorter programs, however, are also possible with the chief goal to help adolescents interact understandingly with the young child. For example, as a culminating experience in a unit on child care, students and teachers may organize a play group for the observation of children. Because the opportunity for participation with the small children is of relatively short duration, this type of unit requires careful planning to be meaningful to the students.

One tested plan calls for a nursery school project to run three days a week for four weeks. On the remaining two days, the teacher and students evaluate the experience and plan the next sessions. At the beginning, teacher and students together organize the project through committee assignments. An example of suggested committees and the basic questions each should consider follow.

Committee One—Children
- For what age groups should we plan the project?
- How shall we select the children?
- How should we provide for the safety of the children? What provision should we make to reach the mother in case of an emergency?
- What information do we need about each child?
- Should a child with a cold be allowed to come?
- Will we include children with special needs?

Committee Two—Activities
- What schedule for class meetings and for child sessions shall we have?
- What will be the daily schedule for the child care sessions?
- Where can we accommodate the children's wraps?
- What materials and toys shall we provide?
- Should we serve a snack?
- How will attendance records be kept?

Committee Three—Observation and Participation
- What jobs will we need to do every day at play school?
- Can we devise a plan for rotating responsibilities so that each student participates in each activity?
- What will observers do in the way of participation?
- What kind of observation forms will we need?
- What should the plans be for student participation in the children's activities and learning?

Committee Four—Evaluation
- What reports (oral or written) will help us determine whether or not we have achieved our goals?
- Can we develop an outline for a study of each child so that our reports will be consistent?
- How can we judge whether our knowledge of children and our attitudes toward them have changed?

In deciding on the activities for the play groups, students will need to know characteristics and interests of the age groups, length of time a child can be expected to stay at one activity, the appropriate books and songs for children of the ages selected. All the required equipment and supplies must be anticipated and listed and figured into the estimated budget.

The overall plan must also anticipate the responsibilities of the students throughout the duration of the play group unit. These may be divided as follows: Group One works with the children; Group Two prepares the snack; Group Three prepares for later interaction with the children by learning stories, songs, and finger plays; Group Four observes. Each week the students rotate group duties which include the following:
- Greet children and help with wraps
- Take attendance
- Supervise free play activity
- Assist in playhouse area or assist with puzzles, blocks, and games as needed.

- Assist children in putting away toys
- Prepare snacks
- Assist with toilet and washing routines
- Clear away paper cups or wash glasses, if used
- Wipe tables
- Read or tell stories
- Help with finger plays and songs
- Assist with art activities
- Help to restore room to order

Each planner of a child care program can judge for herself or himself the most propitious time to present the plan and budget to the administrative officials and faculty. Inasmuch as a program may involve changes in schedules, in current uses of classrooms, toilet rooms, and hallways, plans should be well outlined to avoid conflict with other programs. The budget should be set up to show the expected costs for equipment and supplies and any liability or other insurance that may be necessary.

Inevitably the community must be counted on to assist in some ways. With a little enterprise, students may be able to borrow much of the equipment from the community, home, or from interested friends. Participants in the play group may be selected from children of faculty members, younger brothers and sisters of the students, neighborhood children. As for the size of the play group, 12 children, 6 boys and 6 girls, comprise a manageable and varied group for students to observe and supervise at play. When all plans are firm and approved, and the consent of the parents for the attendance of their children has been obtained, the parents should receive a confirming letter that outlines the plans and asks cooperation in bringing the children to the center and picking them up later.

Although the guidelines contained in this chapter relate chiefly to a short-term program, teachers may find them useful also in planning a 12-week program as part of the home economics curriculum in the high school.

APPENDIX

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Weikart, D., and Erickson, M.J., *The Cognitively Oriented Curriculum,*[2] 1971

Gryphon House, 1333 Connecticut Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20036
Parents and Teachers Together: A Training Manual for Parent Involvement in Head Start Centers[9]

Home Economics Instructional Materials Center, Texas Tech University, P.O. Box 4067, Lubbock, TX 79409
Child Care Aide[8] (available in teacher and student editions)

Humanics Press, 881 Peachtree St. NE, Atlanta, GA 30309
Hooper, K., Pavloff, G., Wilson, G., *A Guide to Record-Keeping*[12] (No. 202)

Instructional Materials Center Services for the Visually Impaired, 1020 S. Spring St., Springfield, IL 62706
Bakalis, M.J., and Calovani, G., *Toys for Early Development of the Young Blind Child*[10]

LINC Press, Learning Institute of North Carolina, 1006 Lamond Ave., Durham, NC 27701
The Playground of the LINC Children's Center[7]

Merrill-Palmer School, 71 E. Ferry Ave., Detroit, MI 48202
Haupt, D., and Osborn, D.K., *Creative Activities,*[6] 1955

National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20009
Baker, K.R. (ed.), *Ideas That Work with Young Children*[9] (Section VI), 1972
Baker, K.R., *Let's Play Outdoors,*[7] 1966
Biber, B., *Promoting Cognitive Growth,*[4] 1971
Dittman, L.L., *Curriculum Is What Happens,*[4] 1970

Galambos, J.W., *A Guide to Discipline.*[10] 1969

Jones, E., *What Is Music for Young Children?*[5] (rev.), 1969

Keister, M.E., *The Good Life for Infants and Toddlers*[9]

Kritchevsky, S., and Prescott, E., *Planning Environments for Young Children: Physical Space*[7] (Ch. 1)

Stone, J.G., and R.N., *Play and Playgrounds,*[7] 1970

National Dairy Council, 111 N. Canal St., Chicago, IL 60606

Hamman, S.L., *See How They Grow: Guide for the Leader.*[11] 1967

McEnery, E.T., and Suydam, M.J., *Feeding Little Folks*[11]

Office of Children's Services, New York Public Library, 8 E. 40th St., New York, NY 10016

Baker, A., *The Black Experience in Children's Books,*[5] 1972

Parents as Resources (PAR) Projects, 576 Hill Terrace, Winnetka, IL 60093

Recipes for Fun[4] (Activities to do at home with children), 1970

Sierra Madre Community Nursery School Association, 701 E. Sierra Madre Blvd., Sierra, CA 91204

Green, M.M., and Woods, E.L., *A Nursery School Handbook for Teachers and Parents* (8th ed.)

State Department of Hospitals, 655 N. Fifth St., Baton Rouge, LA 70804

Packman, M., *Activities Through the Year for Young Children with Moderate Mental Retardation*

United States Government (Office of Child Development, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, P.O. Box 1182, Washington, D.C. 20013)

A Model Code for Day Care Licensing: Day Care Licensing Study,[3] 1972

Class, N., *Licensing of Child Care Facilities by State Welfare Departments,*[3] 1968

Day Care: Staff Training Manual[8] (No. 5)

Exploring Childhood: Pilot Program for 1973-74[8] (Adolescents work with young children)

Food Buying Guide and Recipes[11] (Head Start Booklet No. 3A)

Leader's Handbook for a Nutrition and Food Course[11] (Head Start Booklet No. 3C)

Nutrition, Better Eating for Head Start[11] (Booklet No. 3)

Nutrition Education for Young Children[11] (Head Start Booklet No. 3F)

Nutrition Staff Training Programs (Head Start Booklet No. 3D)

United States Government (Office of Economic Opportunity, 100 19th St. NW, Washington, D.C. 20505)

Equipment and Supplies[7] (Head Start Bulletin No. 9)

Warner, D., and Quill, J., *Beautiful Junk*

United States Government (Superintendent of Documents, Washington, D.C. 20402)

Child Care and Guidance (OE-87021A), 1970 (Suggestions for a one- or two-year program)

Cognitive and Mental Development in the First Five Years of Life[2] (PHS Publication 2057), 1971, 111 pp.

Day Care Services (Children's Bureau), 1964

Day Care Serving Preschool Children (OCD—Publication No. 74-1057)

Federal Funds for Day Care Projects[12] (U.S. Department of Labor), 1972

Hasse, R.W., *Designing the Child Development Center*[7] (OEO)

Hille, H.M., *Food for Groups of Young Children Cared for During the Day*[11] (CB Publication No. 386)

How Children Can Be Creative (No. 12—HEW)[6]

Infant Care (OCD-73-13)

Minimal Brain Dysfunction in Children[10] (Public Health Service Publication No. 2015)

Your Child from One to Six[11] (OCD-73-26)

University Extension Division, University of Colorado, Boulder, CO 80302

Teaching Preschool Children: An In-service Training Program for Child Development Center Staff[8]

Note: The superscript numeral after a title designates the chapter to which the book or other publication is particularly relevant.

Films on Child Care

Abbey's First Two Years. B/W, 30 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9246. Shows the interaction between mother and child and of child with other children on a monthly or bimonthly basis. Good view of healthy development, especially in regard to emotional development and attaining of intellectual concepts.

A Chance at the Beginning. B/W, 30 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9021. Describes a program of preschool education for children from Harlem, with discussion led by Dr. Martin Deutsch, who started the program.

A Child Is. B/W, 22 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. The story of four Head Start children, and the homes that influence them.

Aids Make the Difference. B/W, 15 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. New York University Film Library. Film produced by Vassar for Head Start. Shows aides learning on the job, working with children, and serving as a link between home and program.

A Long Time to Grow. 1953. 72 minutes, 2 parts.
Modern Talking Picture Service. Produced by Vassar Child Study Department.
Part I. 35 minutes. Shows two- and three-year-olds in a nursery school day.
Part II. 37 minutes. Shows 4- and 5-year-olds.
An old film, but information is sound.

At Your Fingertips—Boxes. Color, 10 minutes.
ACI Films, Inc. Shows how boxes can become playthings: cars, playhouses, tunnels.

At Your Fingertips—Floats. Color, 10 minutes.
ACI Films, Inc. Shows young children discovering what floats and why, and making things that float.

Children of Change. 1961. 31 minutes.
Kansas State Board of Health. Shows problems of working mothers and of children left alone.

Children Learning by Experience. 1954. 40 minutes.
New York Film Library. Shows children practicing simple skills, learning through play and imagination.

Children Without. B/W, 29 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9015. Shows what an understanding teacher can do for a slum child and her family.

Children's Emotions. 1950. B/W, 22 minutes.
McGraw-Hill. (films) Shows fear, anger, jealousy, curiosity, and happiness as expressed by young children. Suggests ways of helping the child's emotional development.

Choosing to Learn. 26 minutes.
Educational Development Center. A film about an interesting school, which asks how, what, and why children learn.

Day Care Today.
Polymorph Films, Inc. Shows three different day care centers: infant care, company day care, and university-based day care.

Different Childhood, A. B/W.
OEO. Modern Talking Picture Service. Shows the impact of the mother upon the attitudes and behavior of the young child. Shows needs of children who live in poverty.

Discipline and Self-Control. B/W, 25 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9055. Shows a Head Start classroom, children with various behavior problems, and how the children are guided toward self-control.

Dramatic Play. 1971. 40 minutes.
Campus Films. Shows children learning through dramatic play; also the role of the teacher in preparing the environment.

Early Expressionists. 1965. Color, 15 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. Also Contemporary Films, Inc. Experiences of two- to four-year-olds with various art media. Film at the Golden Gate Nursery School in San Francisco.

Educational Needs of Young Deprived Children.
Modern Talking Picture Service.

Emotional Ties in Infancy. B/W, 12 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9289. Shows four 8-to-10-month-old infants each with an attachment to an adult.

Fears of Children. 1952. B/W, 30 minutes.
State Department of Health. Shows fears of a five-year-old boy—of the dark, of new situations.

Focus on Children. 1962. 26 minutes.
State Board of Health. Shows children: how they learn and grow, the things they do. Promotes early education programs for young children.

Food as Children See It. Color, 20 minutes.
General Mills Film Department, Indiana University Audiovisual Center. A talk by a child-feeding specialist, outlining the ideal meal for preschool children. Shows common child feeding problems and suggested solutions; menu planning.

Four- and Five-Year-Olds in School. B/W, 35 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. #9017. Shows the difference and overlap of the two age groups.

Four Children. B/W, 22 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. Shows four Head Start children at school, at play, at home, and at the dentist.

Guiding Behavior. 1966. B/W, 20 minutes.
Churchill Films. Shows nursery school situations: a test of wills, potential dangers, restlessness, conflict, and tantrums.

Growth of Intelligence in the Preschool Years. (Piaget) 1972. Color, 30 minutes.
Davidson Films. Children from three to six years presented with Piaget-type tasks.

Head Start to Confidence. B/W, 20 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. Order from Office of Child Development. Shows ways to develop confidence and sense of worth in child.

Hello Up There. Color, 9 minutes.
New York University Film Library. Children's drawings reveal their perceptions of what adults are like.

Here I Am. B/W, 28 minutes.
Charles Lyman, 1907 N. Bissel St., Chicago, IL 60614. Teachers work with withdrawn preschool children. Shows changes which take place over a period of several months.

Home Visits: Rural. B/W, 15 minutes.
Home Visits: Urban. B/W, 15 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service. Show how home visits by Head Start staff members link home and Head Start center.

How Babies Learn. 1966. Color, 35 minutes.
New York University Film Library. Shows development during the first year of life, with the influence of interpersonal and physical environment.

How Children Learn. Color, 20 minutes.
Preschool-Primary Productions. How children learn through many sensory experiences.

Impact of Deprivation on Young Children.
Modern Talking Picture Service.

Jenny Is a Good Thing. Color, 18 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9273. Award-winning film showing importance of food-related activities in a program for young children (Head Start).

Joy of Learning. 1970. Color, 25 minutes.
Columbia Forum Productions, Ltd., New York University Film Library. An introduction to the philosophy and method of the Montessori Preschool Program.

Language.
Anti-Defamation League of B'nai B'rith. Shows the controversial Bereiter-Englemann program for disadvantaged four- and five-year-olds.

Learning and Growing and Learning. Color, 20 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9690. Describes the Parent-Child Toy Lending Library developed under Dr. Glenn Nimnicht at the Far West Laboratory for Educational Research, Berkeley, CA.

Looking for Me. B/W, 29 minutes.
University of California Extension Media Center, or New York Film Library. Shows

Janet Adler, a young dance or movement therapist working with two autistic girls ages two and five.

Little World. Color, 20 minutes.
State Board of Health or State Department of Welfare. Shows a full-day care program in New York City, with activities, materials, equipment.

Look at Me. B/W, 30 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9034. Shows difficulties faced by teachers of culturally disadvantaged children, children of Mexican-American migrant farm workers, and follows the success of certain innovations in Head Start teaching.

Maternal Deprivation in Young Children. B/W, 30 minutes.
New York University Film Library. Shows some of the disorders that appear in young children who have been deprived of maternal care for long periods.

My Art Is Me. 1969. Color, 21 minutes.
University of California Extension Media Center. Filmed at University of California Child Study Center in Berkeley. Shows how art relates to the whole curriculum.

Nursery School for the Blind. B/W, 20 minutes.
New York Film Library. Shows how a nursery school for blind children supplements care given by parents at home.

Old Enough But Not Ready. B/W, 28 minutes.
McGraw-Hill. Shows parents and teachers how to spot learning disabilities early.

Operation Head Start. B/W, 16 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9023, Bailey-Film Associates. Shows a Head Start center, a Mexican-American child at home and at the center.

Open for Children. 1972. 30 minutes.
Odeon Films, Inc., 51 W. 86th St., New York, NY 10024. This film of a day care center provides basis for discussion of program, goals, discipline, parent participation.

Organizing Free Play. B/W, 22 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9053. Also New York University Film Library. Shows philosophy and meaning of "free play" as a medium of discovery and learning.

Opportunity Class, The. 22 minutes.
New York University Film Library. Shows a special nursery class for handicapped and normal children.

Palmour Street. B/W, 27 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9013. Shows influence of family problems on children—incidents in the life of a Negro family.

Pathways Through Nursery School. 1962. Color, 21 minutes.
International Film Bureau. Filmed at Stephens College. Demonstrates appropriate equipment and programs for two-, three-, and four-year-olds.

Patterns for Health. B/W, 14 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9059. Covers health needs of four- and five-year-old child.

Patterns for Parenting. 1972. B/W, 26 minutes.
New York University Film Library. Shows typical day for 3-1/2-year-old child in a kibbutz in Israel.

Person to Person in Infancy. B/W, 22 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service, and New York University Film Library. Stresses the importance of human relationships between infant and adults. Shows range of warmth and adequacy of relationship in group care and at home.

Piaget, Jean. Memory and Intelligence. 1971. Color, 45 minutes.
Davidson Films. A filmed documentary with Piaget, with English subtitles.

Planning Creative Play Equipment for Young Children. Color, 16 minutes.
University of California Extension Media. Shows how parents worked together to build the Sierra Madre Community Nursery School.

Play and Personality. 1962. B/W, 44 minutes.
New York University Film Library. A record of the play of a group of preschool children living in a hospital with their mothers who are being treated for severe neurotic problems.

Preschool Blackmale. B/W, 15 minutes.
University of Cincinnati Educational Media Center. Story of a black male teacher of preschool children at Arlitt Child Development Center at the University of Cincinnati.

Psychological Hazards in Infancy. B/W, 22 minutes.
New York University Film Library. Whether in group care or at home, learning in infancy may be hampered by inadequate stimulation or inappropriate care.

Room to Learn. Color, 22 minutes.
Association Films, Inc., or Alden Films. Shows the Early Learning Center, an innovative preschool in Stamford, Connecticut. A single room offers a variety of quiet and open and protected areas, light and dark places.

School Readiness.
Waxler Film Productions, 801 N. Seward Street, Los Angeles, CA 90038. Demonstrates medical and psychological exam used to help determine if a child is ready for school.

Setting the Stage for Learning. B/W, 22 minutes.
Churchill Films. Shows children at play in nursery school situations. Stresses importance of play.

Setting Up a Classroom. Color, 30 minutes.
Office of Economic Opportunity. Shows two teachers planning arrangement of equipment for a functional environment.

The Small World of the Nursery School. Color, 30 minutes.
Educational Coordinates, 6 Alfred Circle, Bedford, MA 01730. Shows how nursery school objectives are achieved through "traditional" and Montessori approaches.

Talking Together. B/W, 14 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9059. Shows parents and teachers discussing importance of communicating ideas in order to help child's development.

Teachers' Aids: A New Opportunity. B/W, 21 minutes.
Modern Talking Picture Service #9061. Shows training of paraprofessionals for preschools.

Terrible Twos and the Trusting Threes. 1950. B/W.
McGraw-Hill. Contemporary Films, Indiana University. Old, but good film of development of child from two to four years.

They Need These Days. B/W, 25 minutes.
Audiovisual Department, University of Minnesota, Child Welfare Division. Shows children in day care centers; needs of children; and methods used.

This Is the Way We Go to School. Color, 25 minutes.
High/Scope Educational Research Foundation, Ypsilanti, MI. Shows three classroom programs of Preschool Demonstration Project.

Publishers of Books For and About Children

Abingdon Press, 201 Eighth Ave. S., Nashville, TN 37203

Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., Jacob Way, Reading, MA 01867

Allyn & Bacon, Inc., 470 Atlantic Ave., Boston, MA 02210

Association for Childhood International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20016

Bantam Books, Inc., 666 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10019

Basic Books, Inc., 10 E. 53rd St., New York, NY 10022

Children's Press, Inc., 1224 W. Van Buren St., Chicago, IL 60607

Child Study Press, Child Study Association of America, Inc., 50 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10010

Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 666 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10019

P. F. Collier Inc., 866 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022

Coward, McCann & Geoghegan, Inc., 200 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10016

Dell Publishing Co., Inc., 1 Dag Hammarskjold Plaza, 245 East 47th St., New York, NY 10017

T. S. Denison & Co., Inc., 5100 W. 82nd St., Minneapolis, MN 55437

Doubleday & Co., Inc., 501 Franklin Ave., Garden City, NY 11530

Dover Publications, Inc., 180 Varick St., New York, NY 10014

Follett Publishing Co., 1010 W. Washington Blvd., Chicago, IL 60607

Fraser Publishing Co., 309 S. Willard St., Box 494, Burlington, VT 05401

Golden Press, 850 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022

Grosset & Dunlop, Inc., 51 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10010

E. M. Hale & Co., 1201 S. Hastings Way, Eau Claire, WI 54701

Harcourt, Brace, Jovanovich, Inc., 757 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017

Harper & Row Publishers, Inc., 10 E. 53rd St., New York, NY 10022

Holiday House, Inc., 18 E. 56th St., New York, NY 10022

Houghton Mifflin Co., 1 Beacon St., Boston, MA 02108

Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., 105 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10016

McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1221 Ave. of the Americas, New York, NY 10036

Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 866 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022

New American Library, 1301 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10019

Oxford Book Co., Inc., 11 Park Pl., New York, NY 10007

Oxford University Press, Inc., 200 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10016

Rand McNally & Co., P.O. Box 7600, Chicago, IL 60680

Random House, Inc., 201 E. 50th St., New York, NY 10022

Schirmer Books, 866 Third Ave., New York, NY 10022

Scholastic Book Services, 50 W. 44th St., New York, NY 10036

Charles Scribner's Sons, 597 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10017

Sterling Publishing Co., Inc., 419 Park Ave. S., New York, NY 10016

University of Chicago Press 5801 S. Ellis Ave., Chicago, IL 60637

Viking Press, Inc., 625 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10022

Henry Z. Walck, 750 Third Ave., New York, NY 10017

Westminster Press, Witherspoon Bldg., Philadelphia, PA 19107

Note: If books are to be ordered from a variety of companies, consult librarian for name of a wholesale jobber.

Film Services

ACI Films, Inc., 35 W. 45th St., New York, NY 10036.

Anti-Defamation League of the B'nai B'rith, 1640 Rhode Island Ave. NW, Washington, D.C.

Association Films, Inc., 600 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10017.

Audio-Visual Aids Library, The Pennsylvania State Library, University Park, PA 16802.

BEA Educational Media, 11559 Santa Monica Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90025.

Campus Film Productions, Inc., 20 E. 46th St., New York, NY 10036.

Churchill Films, 662 N. Robertson Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90069.

Contemporary Films, Inc., 267 W. 25th St., New York, NY 10001.

Coronet Instructional Films, 65 S. Water St. E., Chicago, IL 60611.

Davidson Films, 3701 Buchanan St., San Francisco, CA 94123.

Educational Development Center, 39 Chapel St., Newton, MA 02160.

Educational Media Center, 410 Bldg. A-4, Brodie Complex, University of Cincinnati, Cincinnati, OH 45221.

Indiana University Films, NET Film Service, Audio-Visual Center, Bloomington, IL 47405.

International Film Bureau, 332 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, IL 60604.

McGraw-Hill, Text-Film Division, 330 W. 42nd St., New York, NY 10036.

Modern Talking Picture Service (Address varies for each region. Check with local Head Start Office).

New York University Film Library, 26 Washington Pl., New York, NY 10003.

Polymorph Films, Inc., 331 Newburg St., Boston, MA 02115.

Preschool Primary Productions, 189 N. Wheeler, Orange, CA 92667.

University of California Extension, Media Center, 2223 Fulton St., Berkeley, CA 94720.

Vassar College, Department of Psychology Film Program, Poughkeepsie, NY 10016.

Sources of Records for Children

Bowmar Co., Inc. 622 Rodier Dr., Glendale, CA 91201

Children's Music Center, Inc., 5373 W. Pico Blvd., Los Angeles, CA 90019

Children's Record Guild, 27 Thompson St., New York, NY 10013

Educational Record Sales, 157 Chambis St., New York, NY 10013

Estamae Rhythm Records, 2401 Grand Ave., Pueblo, CO 81003

Folk Dance House, 108 W. 16th St., New York, NY 10011

Folkart Record Co., 1159 Broad St., Newark, NJ 07114

Folkways Records and Services Corp., 165 W. 46th St., New York, NY 10036

Educational Activities, Inc., Freeport, NY 11520

Phoebe James, Box 286, Verdugo City, CA 91046

Rainbow Rhythms, P.O. Box 608, Emory University, GA 30322

Rhythm Productions, Cheviot Corp., Dept. CE, Box 34485, Los Angeles, CA 90034

Small World Records, 761 Two Gateway Center, Pittsburgh, PA 15222

Young People's Records, Inc., 100 Fifth Ave., New York, NY 10013

Mother Goose Records, Inc., 5810 S. Normandie Ave.,Los Angeles, CA 90044

Obtainable from local stores: Columbia records, Disneyland records, Golden records, Sesame Street records

Sources of Supplies and Equipment

There are many distributors of furniture and equipment for children's centers. Write for catalogues or visit some of the following:

Childcraft Equipment Co., 155 E. 23rd St., New York, NY 10010

Child Life Play Specialties, Inc., 1640 Washington St., Holliston, MA 01746 (Large motor and outdoor equipment)

Community Playthings, Rifton, NY 12471

Constructive Playthings, 1040 East 85th St., Kansas City, MO 64131

Creative Playthings, P.O. Box 1100, Princeton, NJ 08540

David C. Cook Publishing Co., 850 N. Grove Ave., Elgin, IL 60201 (Excellent selection of teaching pictures with integrated topics.)

Developmental Learning Materials, 3505 N. Ashland Ave., Chicago, IL 60657 (Especially for children with perceptual problems, but well suited to "normal" children.)

Fisher-Price Toys, Inc., Erie County, East Aurora, NY 14052

Ideal School Supply Co., 8312-46 Birkhoff Ave., Chicago, IL 60620

Judy Co., 310 N. Second St., Minneapolis, MN 55401

Kaplan School Supply Corp., 600 Jonestown Rd., Winston-Salem, NC 27103

Lakeshire Equipment Co., 6036 Claremont Ave., Oakland, CA 94608

Let's Learn Productions, Box 207, Station A, Champaign, IL 61820

NOVO Educational Toy and Equipment Corp., 585 Avenue of the Americas, New York, NY 10011

Play-Art Educational Equipment Co., 20 Maplewood Ave., Philadelphia, PA 19144

Playskool Manufacturing Co., 3720 N. Kedzie Ave., Chicago, IL 60618

SIFO Company, 834 N. Seventh St., Minneapolis, MN 55411

Teaching Aids (A Division of A. Daegger and Co.) General Offices: 159 W. Kenzie St., Chicago, IL 60610 (Source of Montessori equipment.)

Sources of Information on the Special Child

Alexander Graham Bell Association for the Deaf, 1537 35th St., NW, Washington, DC 20007

American Academy for Cerebral Palsy, University Hospital School, Iowa City, IA 52240

American Foundation for the Blind, 15 W. 16th St., New York, NY 10011

Association for Childhood Education International, 3615 Wisconsin Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20016

Association for Education of the Visually Handicapped, 711 14th St. NW, Washington, DC 20005

Bank Street Publications, 69 Bank St., New York, NY 10014

Black Child Development Institute, 1028 Connecticut Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20036

Child Development Associate Consortium, Suite 601E, 7315 Wisconsin Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20014

Child Study Association of America, 50 Madison Ave., New York, NY 10010

Child Welfare League of America, Inc., 44 E. 23rd St., New York, NY 10010

Council for Exceptional Children, 1201 16th St. NW, Washington, DC 20036

Day Care and Child Development Council of America, 1401 K St. NW, Washington, DC 20005

Demonstration and Research Center for Early Education, Peabody College for Teachers, Nashville, TN 37203

Educational Resources Information Center, 805 W. Pennsylvania Ave., University of Illinois, Urbana, IL 61801.

Instructional Materials Center Services for the Visually Impaired, 1020 S. Spring St., Springfield, IL 62706

Minnesota Council of Family Relations, 1219 University Ave. SE, Minneapolis, MN 55414

National Association for Retarded Citizens (formerly Retarded Children) 2709 Avenue E, Arlington, TX 76011

National Association for the Education of Young Children, 1834 Connecticut Ave. NW, Washington, DC 20036

Office of Child Development, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 400 Sixth St. SW, Washington, DC 20013

Office of Children's Services, New York Public Library, 8 E. 40th St., New York, NY 10016

U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity, 100 19th St. NW, Washington, DC 20505

Recipes for Art Materials

Starch Finger Paint
1½ cups dry instant starch
4 cups boiling water
1½ cups *mild* soap flakes
2 tablespoons glycerine
Food coloring
Mix dry instant starch with enough cold water to make a smooth paste. Add boiling water slowly, stirring constantly. Cook over low heat until glossy. Stir in dry soap flakes while mixture is still warm. When cool, add glycerine. Set aside amount of starch mixture to be used immediately and add coloring. Store remainder of uncolored mixture in the refrigerator.

Flour-Water Finger Paint
2 cups flour
5 cups cold water
Salt
Food coloring
Mix flour with a small amount of cold water and stir until mixture is smooth. Stir in remaining water and cook until smooth. Add enough salt to give texture. Cool and add a few drops of food coloring.

Play Dough (for 12 children)
4 cups liquid laundry starch
½ cup cooking oil
½ cup salt
2 cups *mild* soap flakes
½ teaspoon oil of cloves or 1 teaspoon ground cloves
Food coloring
8 cups self-rising flour
2 cups cornstarch
Mix liquid starch, oil, salt, and soap flakes. Heat until salt and soap flakes melt. Remove from heat. Stir in cloves and food coloring. Mix together flour and cornstarch and add to hot mixture a little at a time. If mixture is too dry, add more liquid starch. Store in air-tight container.

Clay Dough
3 cups flour
1½ cups salt
2 tablespoons cream of tartar
3 cups water
1 tablespoon salad oil
Food coloring
Mix dry ingredients together. Add water gradually, stirring until mixture is smooth. Add oil and food coloring. Cook in heavy aluminum saucepan for 3 minutes or until mixture pulls away from sides of pan. Cool and knead. Store in plastic bag.

Cornstarch Play Dough
1 cup cornstarch
2 cups baking soda
1¼ cups cold water
Mix cornstarch and baking soda together. Add water slowly and stir until mixture is smooth. Cook over medium heat until mixture comes to a boil and then boil for 1 minute. (Consistency should be similar to that of mashed potatoes.) Transfer to a plate and cover with damp cloth to cool. Knead. Pat out the dough to the thickness of a cooky cutter. Cut with cooky cutters and then let dry to harden. Paint as desired.
Note: Cornstarch play dough is good for use in making Christmas tree ornaments.

Sawdust Clay
6 cups sawdust
5½ cups flour
2 tablespoons salt
Boiling Water
Mix together sawdust, flour, and salt. Gradually add small amount of boiling water. Blend thoroughly until mixture resembles stiff dough. Wrap in plastic wrap or aluminum foil and store in cool place. Clay will keep about one week.

Glossary

Child Care (Day Care) The terms are used interchangeably with some preference for the former. Both terms refer to care away from home for a young child for all or part of the day on a recurring basis.

Child Development Associate A person who receives a credential denoting a level of competency as a care-giver based on qualifications outlined by a consortium and developed under the auspices of the Office of Child Development. The assessment for this credential is competency-based and is not related to years of schooling or a degree.

Community-Controlled Day Care A program planned, operated, and controlled by members of the community whose background in most instances is similar to that of the families being served.

Comprehensive Care Care which meets the total emotional, social, and intellectual needs in addition to the physical needs of the child. Comprehensive care includes various auxiliary services.

Cooperative Child Care Center A joint operation whereby mothers receive care for their children in exchange for some of the mother's time and services.

Custodial Care Care which adheres principally to the health and safety needs of the child.

Family Care Home Care for children of mixed ages similar to a family group. The number served is limited by their ages and by the number in the care-giver's own family.

Federal Interagency Standards Federal standards imposed on any agency or home that receives federal funds for child care.

Four-C (Community-Coordinated Child Care) This type of program is based on a community council that brings together all persons within a community who are involved in services to children and families. It includes personnel from voluntary, private, and public agencies, parents of children who receive services, and interested citizens. The purpose is two-fold: (1) to coordinate existing resources and thereby avoid duplication in programs and (2) to stimulate local initiative in solving problems. Four-C councils perform planning, coordination, and advocacy functions. There are local and state 4-C councils and at least 31 states that have 4-C activities. In some cases, the groups are able to establish cooperative buying and lending projects and share many resources.

Franchise Day Care A program whereby the design, equipment, and often the supplies and record management are furnished from a central source.

Group Care Center A center that provides care for children of like or mixed ages usually in a group of seven or more.

Group Care Home Care provided in a private home, usually for children of comparable age.

Head Start An intervention program for three- to five-year-olds (often only four-year-olds) to help provide for optimum development of disadvantaged children. The program is usually half-day with meals and snacks included, but there are also full-day programs. The program is federally funded through the Office of Economic Opportunity and requires that 90 percent of the children served shall be from the "poverty level." Head Start is a comprehensive child development program that includes nutrition, health, education, social, and psychological services plus parent involvement.

Health Start A demonstration program to develop ways of coordinating health resources, particularly those provided through the U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, and to extend Head Start type of health services to a greater number of poor preschool children. Some serve rural areas and migrants; others are located in urban communities.

Home Start A Head Start demonstration program designed to bring comprehensive child development services to children and families in their own homes. The program includes nutrition, health, education, social, and psychological services. Emphasis is on the role of parents in growth and development of their own children.

Home Visitor A selected, trained person who goes into the homes to help strengthen families by helping build parental knowledge and skills for child-rearing. Often toys, books, or games are introduced to involve parents or older siblings in developmental experiences with younger children.

Industry-Sponsored Child Care A center sponsored by industry or special groups, such as hospitals, to provide care for the children of employees.

Infant Care Care for very young children, often in a private home although sometimes in a group situation.

License A certificate, which may be renewed periodically, indicating that certain basic standards have been met. All states require a license for group centers, and most regulate family homes as well.

Nursery School A half-day program that usually involves a fee and serves three- to five-year-olds. The nursery school program is considered an "enrichment" program.

Parent-Child Centers These are located in 36 urban and rural communities (one each for migrants and Indians) and are designed to help parents before and after their children are born. These provide comprehensive services to all members of the family, including grandparents.

Parent-Controlled Day Care A center planned, operated, and controlled by the parents it serves rather than by the total community. Some centers are under joint community-parent control.

Parent Education Program A project from the Office of Child Development to initiate education programs for the preparation of teenage boys and girls for parenthood. These programs may operate through schools, Scouts, 4-H Clubs, etc. Actual experience with young children is an essential component of the program. The curriculum developed for this program is called "Exploring Childhood."

Proprietary Day Care Care given for profit either by an individual or an organization.

Standards A set of rules and regulations, usually formulated by the state to protect and enrich the environment of children cared for outside their own homes.